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A SOCIAL HISTORY

OF

ENGLAND

BY

GEORGE GUEST, B.A.

BARRISTER-AT-LAW OF THE INNER TEMPLE
HEADMASTER OF ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, BOURNEMOUTH

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PREFACE

THIS book is intended for use as a Historical Reader in the higher classes of elementary schools, and in the middle forms of secondary schools. It has also been found useful in study circles of the Workers' Educational Association.

It is an attempt to provide a *connected* outline of the Social and Industrial History of England—a branch of History which is quite properly receiving ever-increasing attention.

The aim has been to trace briefly the gradual emancipation of the worker, from a state of slavery to his present position of power which gives him a share in the government of his country; and, whilst it is hoped that there is sufficient continuity between the chapters to enable young readers to study the subject with little assistance from the teacher, it will still be possible to make the volume the basis of a wider course of lectures, if thought desirable.

The matter included will be found generally sufficient for a year's course of study, and the summaries of the chapters will, it is expected, be found useful for revision.

G. G.

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I. ROMAN BRITAIN

CHAPTER I

ANCIENT BRITONS—THE PEOPLE AS CAESAR FOUND THEM

I. THEIR SOCIAL CONDITION

When Julius Caesar, the great Roman general, landed on the coast of Kent towards the end of August, B.C. 55, he found his progress impeded by bands of natives; not ignorant, semi-naked, painted savages as they are generally supposed to have been, but brave warriors who, long before the Romans invaded these shores, had acquired some skill in agriculture, mining, manufacture, and commerce; and to whom the making of roads and the navigation of rivers was not unknown.

It must not, however, be supposed that the people of the island were in a state of uniform civilisation; for the greater part of Britain was, in those early times, uninhabitable. Vast woods, swamps and bogs, infested by packs of wolves and other wild animals in search of prey, occupied much of the interior of the country. In such districts the natives lived chiefly by hunting and fishing, clothing themselves in skins, and painting their faces, as, Caesar says, did all the Britons, to give them a more terrible aspect.

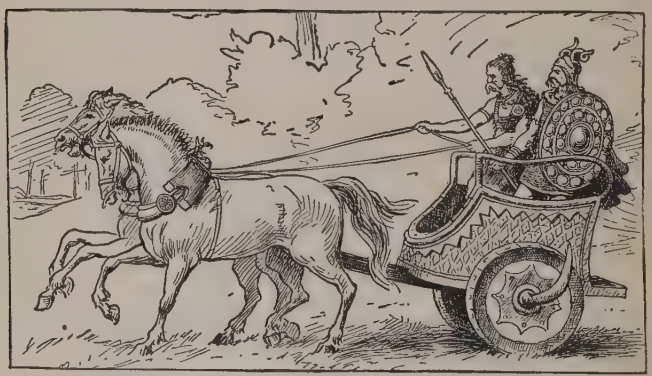
But in the south-eastern and south-western parts of the island the Britons were not so rude and ignorant

as their brethren farther north. They were interested in corn-growing and the rearing of flocks of sheep, pigs, goats and oxen, all of which were domesticated.

No settled system of government existed in the land, but there were many tribes which were constantly at war with each other. Over each tribe was a king or chief whose rule was, for the most part, obeyed, and whose dominion extended over the cultivated lands and pastures where his subjects produced their crops, and tended their flocks and herds. Beyond this restricted area was the forest, the common hunting-ground of neighbouring tribes.

2. INTERNAL TRADE

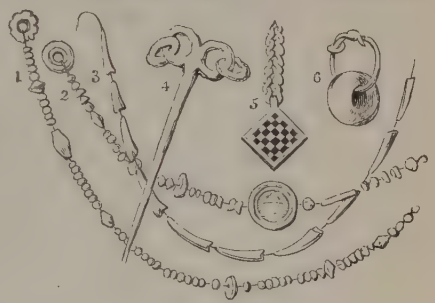
The weapons and clothing used at the time prove that the Britons had acquired various arts. Their



A British War-chariot, drawn from authentic details.

chariots, which were almost breast-high in front and open at the back, were provided with iron scythe-blades of native make. Into the enemy's ranks these chariots were driven by the two or three men mounted thereon ;

the horses being so well trained that they would, even when at full gallop, stop suddenly at a given word from the driver. Helmets, spears, swords and daggers of bronze, hide-covered shields, and heavy clubs were also included in their armour. In the south, tunics of coarse cloth were worn, so thick that they afforded some protection against sword thrusts. Coats and cloaks of bright, gay colours, the dyes for which were obtained from the bark of trees, were in great demand, whilst rings, pins, brooches, beads, and other glittering ornaments of gold, jet, or amber were also in use.



British Feminine Ornaments.

Roads and rivers there must have been to furnish means of communication for the trade of the island. The roads were, of course, mere tracks, first made undoubtedly by the wild animals which were pursued by the early savages along the ridges of hills. Rivers, however, were of great importance in the early days of commerce, as now. Down them the ancient British trader floated his frail coracles, or boats made of osiers covered with skins ; in which he even ventured to cross to Ireland. Larger and stouter vessels of oak, too, were not unknown on the south coast ; and Caesar testifies to the daring and skill of the navigators.

Thus it is clear that the early inhabitants of the island were skilled in weaving, metal-working and boat-building, whilst the use of pieces of copper and

iron for money prove that the Britons had advanced beyond the bartering stage for purposes of trade.

3. FOREIGN TRADE

Long before Caesar invaded Britain, traders from Tyre in Phoenicia, a country to the north of Palestine, visited our shores to obtain supplies of tin from Cornwall, lead from Derbyshire, and furs from native hunters. These visitors offered in exchange gold and silver orna-

British Chiefs, drawn from ancient representations.

ments, and richly dyed cloths. So well known were the mines of Cornwall and Devon that these islands came to be known as the "tin islands." Skins, corn, cattle, iron, and gold found in small quantities along with the tin in Cornwall, were also freely exported; whilst an extensive foreign trade was carried on in slaves taken in warfare, and a special British breed of hunting dogs.

Among the imports may be mentioned copper, ivory goods, amber beads, glass vessels, salt, earthenware, wine, and the finer kinds of cloth.

Generally speaking, it may be said that the imports were manufactured goods, either luxuries or necessities ; and that the exports were raw materials.

4. RELIGION

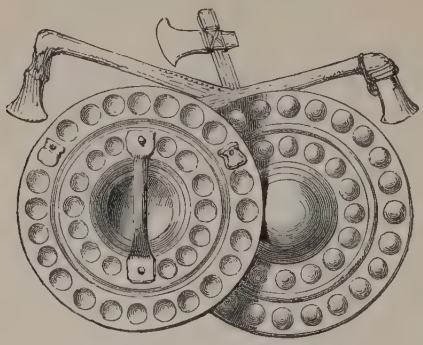
The ancient Britons were idolaters, worshipping the serpent, sun, moon, fire, water, and the oak. Cutting the mistletoe, which was done by their priests, called Druids, was a very solemn ceremony. One of the priests, robed in white, cut the sacred plant with a golden knife. Another Druid, standing below, received the mistletoe in his white robe. Two bulls, which throughout the ceremony had been bound to the oak by their horns, were then sacrificed ; and the berries of the plant were made into medicine.

The Druids claimed to be able to foretell the future. They acted not only as priests, but as doctors, teachers, and lawyers. All disputes were settled by them ; all crimes were punished at their hands. Their judgments were enforced by the threat of expulsion, all offenders being regarded as godless, and unfit to associate with their fellow-men.

Among the Druids was an important class known as "bards," who were expected to compose and sing songs in honour of worthy warriors. They taught that the soul at death passed into another being, the hero dying in battle being rewarded by the passing of his spirit into the body of a higher being. Thus were the Britons encouraged to be brave in the hour of danger.

Great temples and altars, open to the sky, were built by the Druids. Fragments of these structures still remain in many parts of the country. Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain has, for many years, been considered

a relic of the Druids; but it is now supposed that it was constructed later than the Roman occupation.



British Shields and Axes of Bronze.

CHAPTER II

IMPROVEMENTS UNDER ROMAN RULE

1. GENERAL EFFECTS OF THE ROMAN OCCUPATION

THE Roman occupation of Britain, which lasted from about B.C. 55 to the year 410 A.D., when the Romans finally quitted the island, was, in its general effect, beneficial to the country. Almost a century of repose from foreign invasion succeeded the two expeditions of Julius Caesar, the first of which was certainly a failure, whilst that of the following year, B.C. 54, was nearly so. Many armies and many generals were sent from Rome one after another, until at last Britain became a Roman province. The Emperor Claudius himself even visited Britain for a few days in 43 A.D.

The most successful of these generals was Julius Agricola (78 to 89 A.D.), about whom his son-in-law Tacitus, the great Roman writer, tells us much. Agricola invaded the northern part of the island, known as Caledonia, and succeeded in building a line of forts between the Firths of Forth and Clyde; he was famous too for his fairness and kindness, which quickly gained the goodwill of the Britons, and resulted in many improvements among the conquered people.

It was at this time that the Britons first copied Roman habits, the men of London and York even adopting the toga as the fashionable garment. Temples, porticoes and halls were erected, and comfortable dwellings of wood, brick or stone superseded the old mud huts formerly occupied by the people. Numerous baths were constructed, an excellent example of which may still be seen at Bath or Aquae Sulis, as it was then called. Even the religion was changed, the old Druidical ceremonies being supplanted by the worship of the Roman Classic divinities.

In this way the Roman law, religion, learning, luxury, and industrial arts were gradually adopted in Britain.

2. ROMAN ROADS

To enable their troops to move rapidly from one part of the island to another, the Romans constructed excellent roads composed of successive layers of stones, gravel, lime, and concrete. It is a matter for surprise that these wonderful roads, which have never been equalled, did not follow the windings of river-valleys or the ridges of hills, as did the old British tracks, but struck out boldly in straight lines across hill and dale.

The historian Guest, in his *The Four Roman Ways*, describes them briefly as follows :—" The tracing of the Roman roads has always been a matter of controversy. But it was certain, to give them their later names, that the great *Watling Street* led from London north by St. Albans, Fenny Stratford, Northampton, and Tamworth to Wroxeter, near Shrewsbury ; the *Ermine Street*, from London to Lincoln by Colchester and Cambridge ; the *Foss Way*, from Cornwall to Lincoln, crossing the Watling Street at High Cross, between Coventry and Leicester. There was also the *Icknield Street*, perhaps from Bury St. Edmunds to Salisbury and Southampton, but this is a matter of conjecture. These four are known as the Four Great Roman Ways, though the Icknield Street was probably only a British track, and the Ermine Street was certainly not Roman south of Huntingdon. From London one great road led to Richborough on the coast. Smaller roads stretched from these between all military stations and places of importance."

It is important, however, to remember that, though primarily made for military purposes, as already mentioned, these roads were of immense service to commerce.

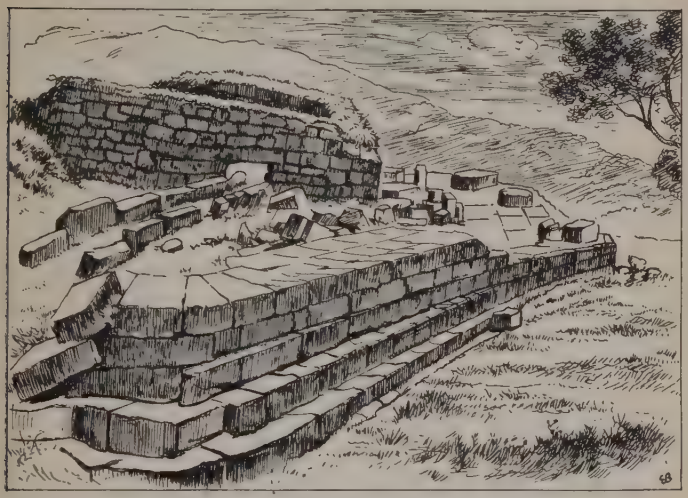
3. ROMAN TOWNS IN BRITAIN

The growth of towns was another important feature of the Roman occupation. They sprang from the numerous fortresses and stationary camps which were established along the great roadways.

Some of these towns, called "*coloniae*," were inhabited almost exclusively by Roman veterans enjoying the same laws and customs as Rome herself. Among them were Richborough on the Kentish coast, London,

Colchester (Camulodunum), Bath (Aquae Sulis), Gloucester, Chester, and Lincoln.

Other towns, known as "*municipia*," whose inhabitants elected their own magistrates, included York (Eboracum), and Verulamium, or St. Albans as it is now called. The office of town councillor apparently passed from father to son; and, as the



Abutment of the Roman Wall near Chesters, where it is intersected by the North Tyne River.

municipal bodies were held responsible for the collection and levy of the taxes due to Rome, the office was not popular.

In the towns the best houses were occupied by officials, whilst round about them were gathered the wattled huts of the poorer classes. Public buildings were not unknown, and included amongst such were court-houses, baths and barracks, whilst a theatre

or circus was to be found in every important town. Altogether there were about fifty-nine towns in Roman Britain, but the bulk of the population resided outside them, where they were engaged in agriculture.

To render the towns safe from the attacks of foes, they were mostly surrounded by massive walls, so strong and wide that there was room on the top for a chariot to be driven. Access to these towns was then only to be gained by means of the huge gates, guarded by soldiers during the day, and closed at night. York, Chester and Lincoln are examples of such walled towns.

Strong walls, too, were built across the country in various places to protect the more peaceful inhabitants from the raids of their wilder and more savage neighbours. For this reason, the chain of forts built by Agricola between the Forth and Clyde were linked together by a strong wall. The Emperor Hadrian, too, who visited Britain in 121 A.D., caused a famous wall and line of forts to be constructed from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Firth. Many portions of this wall still exist and are most strikingly seen near Housesteads, Northumberland, and at Chollerford, where the line is intersected by the Tyne and where there are the remains of a military station called Chesters.

4. AGRICULTURE IN ROMAN BRITAIN

Britain was already a fertile country before the coming of the Romans, for, along the sides of hills which had been cleared of trees, the Britons grew excellent corn in sufficient quantities to supply not only their own wants, but also to export small quantities to Gaul and Ireland. Under Roman guidance, however,

means of communication increased considerably, thus enabling the country to export still greater quantities of corn, which the rich soil readily yielded. It is recorded that numerous vessels conveyed vast stores of corn from Britain to various Roman cities on the Continent, the annual output being so great that the island justly earned the title of "The Granary of the North."

We see, then, that Roman influence increased and systematised a branch of agriculture which already existed, and for which the island was admirably suited.

To the direct influence of Rome, however, is attributed the introduction of cherries, beautiful flowers, and the grafting of fruit trees; whilst fowls, geese, and a special breed of hornless sheep are other novelties credited to them.

5. ROMAN LAW

The greatest boon conferred on the country by the conquerors was the establishment of settled law and order, under which the various existing industries rapidly developed. Men no longer adjusted their quarrels by violence, but in the law-courts, where the Romans proved themselves to be perfect masters of the art of doing justice; and it is a remarkable fact that the study of Roman Law still forms an important branch of reading for all who desire to qualify for the legal profession.

In one important respect, however, the Romans failed to improve the lot of the Britons. They taught them much, but they made no deliberate effort to train them to become a united people. Such indeed was not their intention. Britain was regarded purely as a

valuable possession, out of which the conquerors determined to get as much as possible; and it is doubtless a fact that Caesar's object in landing here was to obtain the wealth for which the island was famous—minerals, slaves, corn, etc.—in order to pay his army, and maintain his position as leader.

In the play *Julius Caesar*, Shakespeare puts into the mouth of Mark Antony words which bear out this assertion:—

> "He hath brought many captives home to Rome,
> Whose ransoms did the general coffers fill."

Years of peace under Roman government, and the desire of the Britons to copy the customs of their alien masters, left them entirely incapable of combining for self-defence; hence, after the departure of the Roman settlers, they fell an easy prey to the energetic Saxons.

II. ANGLO-SAXON TIMES

CHAPTER I

SOCIAL RANKS

I. THRALLS OR SLAVES

THE Anglo-Saxon tribes, who took possession of this country after the departure of the Romans, are pictured in history as a race of reckless warriors, untouched by Christianity or other softening influences. They delighted in battle and plunder, and wrought sad havoc in art, religion, and all civilising influences established by the Romans. A land rich in corn and pasture, sheep and cattle, orchards and farms, lay stretched before them ; hence, instead of settling in cities as the former conquerors had done, they proceeded to take possession of the land itself, where it was to their interest to preserve, as far as possible, the native labourers and farm stock. Doubtless many of the men among the Britons were driven out or killed, but it is equally certain that some remained to till the land for their new masters ; whilst the number of Celtic words in our language connected with feminine usage proves that the women were retained to become, probably, the wives of the Saxon invaders.

In course of time the country became settled, and the inhabitants, conquerors and conquered, engaged in occupations varying with their position in the social

scale, at the bottom of which was the slave population.

This servile class, known as "Theowes," "Esnes," or "Thralls," was composed partly of descendants of the conquered Britons, partly of slaves of the visitors. Freemen sometimes were reduced to slavery because they were unable to pay the fine imposed on account of some crime committed. Debt was another cause of slavery, for the debtor, failing to satisfy his creditor, forfeited his right to freedom. Famine also drove many to sell themselves in order to obtain the food necessary to satisfy their hunger, it being even possible for children over seven years of age to be sold by their parents during such times of scarcity, whilst children of thirteen years might dispose of their own freedom for a similar reason.

Slaves became the absolute property of their master, receiving no protection whatever from the law. The treatment meted out to them depended, therefore, entirely upon the will of their owner, who might punish them in any way whatever, even by putting them to death. The latter course was, however, seldom adopted, because the master thereby lost valuable property, and he would have been considered as foolish as would anyone nowadays who should deliberately destroy any part of his stock, thus rendering himself the poorer.

The slave was, however, protected from ill-usage at the hands of strangers; for the law imposed a fine called "wer-gild" on any person who should slay the slave of another; this money-compensation for manslaughter going into the pocket of the slave's master for the injury thus done to his property.

2. CEORLS

The freemen of the country consisted of several ranks, the lowest and most numerous of which was that of the "ceorls" or "simple" freemen.

These were of the farmer class of yeomen, who farmed either their own land or that of their lord, to whom also they paid rent. The landless ceorl had probably "made over," in times of distress, the land he originally owned to some one, who thereby became his lord, and upon whom he thereafter depended for protection.

In many respects, such landless ceorls were little better off than slaves; but they might attach themselves to any lord they pleased, for whom they performed certain services in return for their "holding." They could also possess property of their own, carry arms, and receive the protection of the law, all of which were denied to thralls: hence they were not real slaves. Before quitting the land, however, they had to obtain their lord's consent; and they were liable to be transferred with the land to anyone who might obtain possession of it.

All ceorls were "law-worthy," which meant that when one was killed the "wer" or compensation for his death was paid not to his lord, but to his kindred. According to Mercian Law, a ceorl's "wer-gild," *i.e.* "man-gold," was two hundred and sixty-six thrymsas, that is, about two hundred shillings.

Ceorls might, however, be "outlawed" for serious offences, that is, deprived of all privileges afforded by the power of the law.

3. EORLS, THANES, AND PRIESTS

At the top of the social scale, next to the king him-

self, were the lords or nobles, consisting of "eorls," or persons of noble birth. This title of "eorl," denoting merely rank at first, came later to be applied to those holding the office of provincial governor (*e.g.* the Earl of Mercia) or other position of power, from whom were chosen the "companions" or personal followers of the king or other leader.

Gradually the office of "attendant" became very attractive, on account of the social dignity and emoluments attached thereto, though the holder was regarded as the "servant" or "thegn" of his lord or "loaf-giver," who fed, lodged, and rewarded his followers. Hence we read of the king's "bower-thegn" and "horse-thegn," which have their modern counterpart in such offices as Master of the Horse and Lord Chamberlain. Thus, although the office might seem to have carried somewhat less dignity than formerly, it was filled by personages of high influence; so that the title "thegn" or "thane" came to be synonymous with "eorl" or noble. In this way there grew up a nobility by service.

There was also an inferior class known as Lesser Thanes, it being possible even for a ceorl to enter the ranks of thane. As, however, there was an intimate connection between social status and ownership of land, it was necessary that a Lesser Thane should possess at least five hides of land, whilst a King's Thane should hold at least forty hides; a "hide" varying from sixty to one hundred acres.

A merchant, too, might rise to the rank of thane, if he "throve so well" that he succeeded in crossing the sea thrice by his own means.

The murder-fine or "wer-gild" increased with social rank, that of a King's Thane being twelve hundred

shillings, that of an eorl twice as much, and of a Lesser Thane six hundred shillings.

In early Saxon days the people were heathens, and worshipped many gods, the chief and wisest among them being the war-god, Odin or Wodin, from whom we derive our word Wednesday or Wodin's day. He was depicted as one-eyed, since he had bartered the other for wisdom. Thor, the Thunderer, or god of the air, gives his name to our Thursday; whilst the names of Tew, the god of darkness, Frea, the goddess of beauty, and Soetere, the god of hate, still survive in our Tuesday, Friday, and Saturday: Sunday and Monday being respectively the days of the sun and the moon.

After the introduction of Christianity, however, the Church gradually acquired great power and influence in the country; and the clergy, on account of their learning, were held in high esteem, even the poorest of them ranking as "mass-thanes." From time to time land was bequeathed to them for the maintenance of cathedrals and abbeys, the land so set apart being known as "glebe" land, whilst the district thus ministered unto was called the parish or "priest-shire."

Bishops ranked equally with earls; and higher still was the archbishop, who was considered to be on a par with the "athelings," or members of the King's family.

Wooden Saxon Church, Little Greenstead.

CHAPTER II

SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

I. ROYALTY

THERE is no doubt that the English were at first led by the eorls, from whose ranks the early tribal kings were chosen; and many years must have elapsed before the whole country was governed by "one" king, acting as chief magistrate, and commander-in-chief of the state army. But although the kingship was undoubtedly elective, the people's choice was limited to those who claimed to be divinely descended from Odin.

Later, the custom arose of choosing the eldest son of the king to succeed him, unless the heir happened to be a child, when some one more capable of taking command of the army was elected. His power, however,

was greatly limited by the supreme Council of the nation, the Witenagemot or Witan, whose consent was necessary to all important proposals. The Witan had the power to depose the king for misgovernment. It could also declare war, assent to treaties, levy taxes, and make laws. These powers were seldom exercised in full, however, for strong kings, such as Alfred and

A Witenagemot, from an Eleventh Century MS.

Athelstan, were able through their officers to exercise considerable influence over the Witan, except in matters of taxation.

Kings had, too, supreme power over the "Fyrd," or national militia, of which all freemen were members, and which could be called out in times of danger, foreign or civil.

The "wer-gild" of a king was 7200 shillings. His consort, also, was held in high esteem, being styled "wife" and "lady," whilst his brothers and sons received the distinguishing title of athelings a word

denoting at first noble birth, but which later was applied only to the immediate relatives of the king.

2. TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS

In many parts of the country were settlements containing the lands of a lord, together with some common pasture known as "folk-land," *i.e.* land of the people, which could not be disposed of by the king unless he first obtained the consent of the Witan. For the purpose of mutual defence men gathered together in this way, clearing for themselves spaces in the forest where houses were built, and where mounds surmounted by hedges were thrown up to keep off enemies; it being the duty of all to share the work of constructing and repairing this rampart. To make the position still more secure, a deep ditch filled with water was constructed immediately outside the earthworks; and beyond this ditch grew their crops. The name given to such settlements was "tun" or "ton," a town, and "ham," a home, which formed the unit of the territorial divisions. Many such townships gradually arose in various parts of the country, and names ending in "ton" and "ham" are common to-day, *e.g.* Southampton, Buxton, Birmingham, etc.

At a later date, ten such townships or family settlements were joined together for the common good into a unit for keeping the peace and dealing with evildoers. Combinations of this kind were known as "tithings."

As the desire for mutual defence increased, groups of tithings joined together to form "hundreds"; but it is uncertain whether the term signified one hundred free families, or one hundred hides of land. North of the Trent such groups were called "wapentakes," a name which evidently refers to the armed assembly of

freemen, it being customary for the weapon or spear of the earldoman to be touched when he took up office. Hence the origin of the "hundred" was clearly military.

Still larger divisions called "shires" had been made before the end of the tenth century, the name meaning a "share" or subdivision of some larger whole; whilst a union of shires constituted a "kingdom." England in those early times was divided up into several such kingdoms.

3. COURTS OF JUSTICE

The highest court of all was, of course, the Witan or "Great Moot," to which reference has already been made, and whose influence extended to the whole nation. This assembly of "Wise Men" met three times a year, namely, at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas; but could be called together at other times if necessary. To it gathered members of the Royal Family, Archbishops, Bishops, Earls, Abbots, and King's Thanes; so that it was not a representative assembly, since it was impossible for "freemen" to assemble from all parts of England.

For the purposes of local government various minor courts, each having specific powers, were set up. The chief of these was the Shire Moot, or, as it was called after the Norman Conquest, the County Court. It met twice a year, and all freemen, *i.e.* youths over fifteen years of age, were entitled to attend it; therefore it is often called the "folk-moot," or court of the people. They assembled fully armed in coat of mail with long sword, small round shield, and knife or "seax" in belt; hence the name Saxon, *i.e.* seax or knife man. Over the court presided the bishop of the

diocese, and the earldoman, an officer appointed by the Witan; whilst its decrees were executed by the sheriff or "shire-reve," who was appointed by the king. Its decisions were final, unless the expensive procedure of appealing to the king and his Witan were claimed; and its powers were wide, extending to civil, ecclesiastical, and criminal cases.

Next in importance was the "Hundred Moot," over whose monthly gatherings presided the "Hundred-elder" or "Hundred-man." The fine or "wite" imposed by this court was exacted not from the wrong-doer himself, but from the community to which he belonged, who were thus made responsible for his shortcomings. Hence it was their aim to maintain good order.

Townships were governed by their own court, known as the "Town Moot" or "Hall Moot," because it was held in the Hall of the lord's residence. All freemen were eligible to attend its monthly meetings, and take part in the election of the "Town Reeve" or "Tun-gerefa," and the "Beadle."

Arrangements were also made for representatives from each court to attend the higher assemblies, thus linking up the various branches of government.

4. PUNISHMENTS

Offenders brought before the Courts or Moots were usually made to atone for their misdeeds by payment of fines, by outlawry, slavery, or even by death.

The "wer-gild" or "man-gold," to which reference has already been made, was originally a money-compensation for murder only, but most offences came to be atoned for thus. This compensation was divided equally between the king and the family of the injured

person, the king's share being called "wite," and the injured man's, or his family's, share "wer."

Sometimes culprits refused to appear for trial, and in order to compel them to consent to the authority of the courts, the penalty of outlawry was introduced for serious crimes not worthy of death. An outlaw was driven from all society, was deprived of all legal rights, and was entirely at the mercy of any who might find and slay him.

Instead of being outlawed, accused persons were sometimes placed under heavy weights, and fed on bad bread and stagnant water every other day, in order to make them acknowledge the jurisdiction of the courts. This cruel mode of procedure actually continued for centuries, gradually becoming less frequent, until the last recorded case which happened as late as 1726.

5. JUDICIAL PROCEDURE

The accused person having been brought before the proper court, it was necessary to decide upon his guilt or innocence. Several modes of procedure were open to him, one of which was "compurgation" and "oath," or "wager of law"; another, "ordeal."

In the case of "compurgation" or "wager of law," the accused had to produce a number of witnesses or compurgators, usually twelve, who were able to swear either to his innocence of the particular charge made against him, or to his general good character; sometimes to both. The witnesses themselves were freeholders of good repute; and their testimony, together with that of the accused person himself, frequently resulted in acquittal.

A prisoner sometimes appealed to the ordeal of fire, water, or consecrated bread.

If the ordeal by fire was chosen, he was made to grasp a red-hot bar of iron in his hand, and walk three paces before relinquishing his hold. Instead of this, he might be required to walk blindfolded and barefooted over ground strewn unevenly with nine red-hot ploughshares.

Ordeal by water implied the plunging of the bare arm into a vessel containing boiling water, and drawing out some object placed therein.

The injured hand or foot was then bound in linen by the priest, and was not examined until seven days had elapsed. If at the end of that period the wound was found to be healed, the accused was pronounced "not guilty"; but if otherwise, he was condemned to suffer further punishment.

Sometimes another form of ordeal by water was practised, when the accused was cast bodily into it. Strangely enough, if he sank, he was deemed innocent; but if, on the contrary, he came forth unscathed, he was pronounced guilty.

Ordeal of the consecrated bread required the prisoner to swallow a piece of bread which the priest had blessed. Before doing so, he was compelled to take a solemn oath that he was innocent, and pray that the bread would choke him if guilty.

In all such tests it was the general belief that Heaven would protect the innocent, and expose the guilty.

Evidence of witnesses, who were able to swear, according to a set formula, to facts actually seen and heard, was accepted in Anglo-Saxon courts, as was also documentary evidence.

CHAPTER III

OCCUPATIONS AND PASTIMES OF THE PEOPLE

I. AGRICULTURE

In Anglo-Saxon times agriculture was the most important business of the people. Crops of wheat, rye, oats and barley were grown for human food, though the proportion of wheat, compared with other grains, was small. The method of cultivation accounted for the comparative paucity of the crops, for in those early days individual enterprise was not the rule. Instead of this, each village community was, as a whole, responsible for the performance of agricultural operations, in fields most of which were not permanently enclosed.

We may picture to ourselves the early English engaged in digging, ploughing and sowing at the beginning of the year, and in making hay and gathering the grain harvest later.

Trees laden with apples, pears, and other fruits were numerous; and the hives to be seen alongside the orchards provided the honey which was used instead of sugar to sweeten the mead—a favourite beverage prepared from fermented honey and boiling water.

In the vast forests, herds of swine fed upon acorns and beechnuts.

Owing to the absence of root crops in winter, cattle were killed in large quantities during autumn, and salted in readiness for winter food. Still, oxen, horses and sheep were reared in considerable numbers, wool

forming an important article of export; whilst the operations of threshing, winnowing, and the storing of wood for fuel, also engaged attention during the winter season.

By way of relief from salt meat, fish and game were caught in large numbers, eels being so important an article of diet that they were frequently accepted as rent.

2. TRADE—HOME AND FOREIGN

When the Romans quitted Britain, trade of all kinds suffered severely, for the great mass of the newcomers understood and practised agriculture alone. The immense mineral wealth of the country was scarcely touched, and little trading between tribes took place, because life was essentially local in early Saxon days. This was accounted for to a great extent by the nature and condition of the roads, which were mostly mere tracks, almost impassable, because their repair was not incumbent upon anyone; hence long journeys, except pilgrimages and military undertakings, were almost unknown.

For the most part, manufactures were confined to the homes of the people, or were in [redacted] proximity to them. There the shoemaker, the carpenter, the iron or copper smith, plied his wonted task. Every home, too, contained its spinning-wheel, at which the good wife spun and wove the cloth for tunic and hose needed by the family. Even ladies of the highest rank engaged in the handling of distaff and spindle; and the skilful use of the needle produced those fine embroideries for which Saxon ladies earned European fame.

To defeat dishonesty it was laid down by law that the presence of sheriff, priest, lord of the manor, or

other trustworthy person, was necessary to the making of any bargain. But in spite of the drawbacks which are always present in a rough state of society, trade gradually increased; and neighbouring tribes transacted business on neutral boundary lines, which latter practice gave rise to the erection of the "market-cross," to develop in course of time into the site of a town.

Foreign trade, on the contrary, was more extensive, there being proofs that Anglo-Saxon merchants indulged in commercial transactions with many cities of France, Germany, Scandinavia, Italy, and even with Iceland. When Alfred had subdued the turbulent Danes, he set to work to extend our commerce, and succeeded later in building the first native British fleet of any distinction, and thus becoming the founder of the British navy.

Athelstan, too, did much to encourage foreign commerce, and a race of merchants, eager to trade abroad, rapidly came into existence. Among the ports frequented in those early days may be mentioned London, Bristol, Pevensey, Hythe, Sandwich, Dover, and Chester.

Precious metals and stuffs for embroideries which were used in the monasteries, together with furs and skins, were the chief articles imported. The exports were chiefly raw products, cattle, horses, minerals, and slaves, the latter being mostly captives taken in tribal wars. To this circumstance may probably be attributed the presence of the boys whom Gregory saw in the slave-market at Rome.

3. LITERATURE

After the re-introduction of Christianity, monasteries

were founded in many parts of the country, where the monks studied and prayed, tended the sick and poor, and taught the people reading, writing, and other useful arts of peace. In these abbeys the finer arts of weaving, embroidery, glass and metal work and the copying and illuminating of manuscripts filled up the days of the monks or nuns, whilst the work of the carpenter, weaver, smith, mason, gardener, farmer, painter, doctor and miller, was not unknown there.

Bede's Chair in Jarrow Church.

To the civilising influence of these holy men and women we owe, too, the first native writings of early English times. In the abbey of Whitby in Yorkshire lived Hilda the first lady teacher. Among her servants was a cowherd named Cædmon, the first English poet whose beautiful creations were based upon Old and New Testament stories. Northumbria also claimed the greatest of those early scholars; for at Jarrow resided the renowned Venerable Bede who was responsible for the first Saxon prose writings, mostly in Latin, except an English translation of the Gospel of St. John, completed on his death-bed. The most important work of Old English prose was, however, the Saxon Chronicle instituted by King Alfred; and the writings of this king himself are also worthy of mention.

4. DWELLINGS

Dwellings varied, of course, according to the rank and wealth of those who lived in them, the houses of the lower classes being mostly mere huts of sticks and mud, thatched with straw. Through a hole in the roof passed the smoke, which escaped from the fire placed in the middle of the room, after it had blackened the faces of the people sitting around. Another hole in the wall served as a window.

Substantial homesteads of timber, with thatched roof and plastered walls, formed the dwellings of the lesser thanes, whilst the halls of the Saxon nobles were long, low structures, usually erected on the summit of a hill, and surrounded by a roomy court-yard.

The earthen floors of these dwellings were strewn with rushes or sacks of straw, over which were thrown coarse coverings of skin. Upon such beds guest and host stretched themselves for the night, after they had extinguished the torch which had lighted them to their couch; and, with a block of wood for a pillow, they no doubt quickly fell asleep.

5. DRESS

Slaves were clothed in rough garments of skin, from which the hair had not been scraped; and their feet were protected by ill-shaped sandals, secured by clumsy thongs.

The garb of the freeman was similar to that of the agricultural labourer in many parts of England to-day. With his tight-sleeved smock-frock, and his legs and feet swathed in linen bands of varied hues, he was a picturesque sight.

A short cloak of gaily-coloured cloth, attached to the shoulder by means of a buckle, was the chief outer garment of the wealthier landowner; beneath which was worn a woollen tunic, extending from throat to knee, and gathered at the waist by means of a leathern belt. Shoes and straps of strong leather protected legs and feet.

Royal Costume in the Tenth Century.

The arms of the noble were bedecked with gold bands, and a metal band, bearing the owner's name, was worn about the neck of the slaves as the mark of servitude.

6. PASTIMES

The hunting of the wild-boar, cattle, bear, deer, and wolf, formed the chief pastimes of the people, and falconry, quarter-staff, and juggling were very popular too.

Food was plentiful, but simple. It consisted of joints of beef, pork, fish, fowl, and venison, with which were eaten huge cakes of bread. The joints were carved with the dagger carried at the belt, and wooden trenchers did duty as plates. After the meal was ended, the glasses of the upper ranks, and the horn drinking-vessels of the humbler people, were filled with the national drink—namely, beer. The richer people drank mead or wine. As the tumblers were not flat at

the base, it was not possible to put them down until their contents had been drained: hence drunkenness was common.

Song and chorus, with harp accompaniment, completed the evening's entertainment, which continued until snores betokened the end of the revelry.

III. THE NORMAN PERIOD

CHAPTER I

THE MANORIAL SYSTEM

1. ORIGIN OF THE MANOR

THE word "manor" is a Norman name meaning "dwelling-place," and is used instead of the Saxon word "township," to mean a village or settlement all the members of which are bound together under one lord. It is, however, important to remember that the kind of estate to which the name was given existed long before the Norman Conquest.

All through the Saxon period, the power of the lord over his dependants had been gradually increasing; but, with the advent of the Normans into England, the position of the tenant was still further debased. Originally, the lords were protectors, and not masters, of the freemen residing around them; but in course of time, the poorer cultivators, owning only a small piece of land, became, in return for protection, the tenants of the more powerful men of the neighbourhood, giving up their rights as freeholders: hence by the time the Conqueror arrived, the manorial system was well established, and it only remained for him to organise it still further.

2. PLAN OF A MANORIAL VILLAGE

Look at the plan of a manorial village. There,

Plan of a Manorial Village.

occupying a prominent position, is the " Manor House " standing in a small park known as the lord's demesne (demēn). Perhaps it is a castle, with a round or rectangular tower, a great gateway, and a large hall; or, it may be only a fortified house. Such dwellings were so constructed the better to resist any attack that might be made upon them; but, in more settled times, manor-houses were built to be more pleasant to live in, though less suited to purposes of defence.

Due south of the manor-house may be seen the Church, which was usually situated on rising ground near the cross-roads, while near by, within the boundary of the Church-lands, is the rectory.

Clustered together near the meeting of the four lanes are the cottages of the tenants, and still farther south is situated the lord's mill, to which must be sent the corn to be ground for the little community, however extortionate the charge. To the south, west, and east, are large fields, beyond which are woodland and waste.

The timber produced by the forest or woodland was the property of the lord, but tenants had the right to " lop " and " top " certain trees, collect fallen branches for fuel, and turn cattle and swine in limited numbers into the woods to feed.

Near the stream were stretches of meadowland, generally belonging to the lord, but sometimes " let " at a high rent to his tenants.

The area included in such manors varied considerably, some exceeding 5000 acres, though smaller ones were probably about one-tenth that size.

3. INHABITANTS OF THE MANOR

The lord of the manor was a person of much importance, though even his social status varied greatly ac-

cording to the number and extent of the manors he controlled. Many manors were held by the king himself or some great noble who ruled like an absolute monarch, even holding his own courts for the trial of offenders. In the "court leet," all tenants, free and unfree, acted as the jury in minor criminal cases, while a body of freeholders formed the jury for the "court

A Norman Manorial Church, Castle Rising, Norfolk.

baron," which dealt with civil offences. Attached to these courts the lord had his own jail, and sometimes even his own gallows where offenders might be hung.

Residing near the manor-house, and usually appointed by the lord of the manor, was the parish priest, whose duty it was to conduct the services in the church and act as chaplain in the manor-house. The rent or produce of Church-lands, *i.e.* "glebe," was generally

sufficient to maintain the priest; but the payment of tithes, at first voluntarily, but later compulsorily, improved the position of the parson, although they added a heavy tax to the land.

There were also three other distinct classes of inhabitants on most manors, namely, "villeins," "bordars" or "cottars," and slaves, whose position will be the better understood by a description of the methods of cultivation employed in early manorial days.

4. THE THREE-FIELD SYSTEM

The arable or ploughed land of the manor usually consisted of three fields, each of which was further divided into a series of strips. These fields were not at all like those we are accustomed to see nowadays, for they were not surrounded by hedges or walls of any kind. Their size, too, was remarkable when compared with a modern field of twenty acres, for each of them was from two hundred to five hundred acres, or even more, in extent.

Immediately outside these fields was moor or forest land, so that they appeared to be islands of cultivated land surrounded by woodland and waste.

If we think of the crops growing therein we shall understand why it was customary to have three fields. When the east field was growing wheat, oats would be seen in the west field, while that to the south would be lying fallow. During the next year the east field would produce oats, the west would be fallow, and the south would grow wheat. A still further change would occur in the third year, as is shown by the following table:—

	1st Year.	2nd Year.	3rd Year.
East field . .	grass, or fallow	wheat	oats
West field . .	wheat	oats	lying fallow
South field . .	oats	lying fallow	wheat

Thus each field would lie fallow, or have one year's rest, in every three years.

This is the method of cultivation by the rotation of crops whereby the land was prevented from becoming exhausted by growing the same crop upon it year after year. Ploughing and harrowing of the fallow land was sometimes resorted to by the tenant in order to improve it still further; and it was even left occasionally to become covered with weeds. It must not be forgotten that in those days the use of root-crops as winter food for cattle was unknown.

The strips into which the fields were divided were, for the most part, about two hundred and twenty yards long. This length was found by experience to be the most suitable distance for a team of oxen to plough without stopping; and the distance became known as a "furrow-long," that is, a furlong. In a similar manner we obtained the length of a "rod, pole, or perch" from the long rod, about five and a half yards in length, which was used by the ploughman to urge on his team. A strip of land a furlong in length and a rod in width was regarded as a reasonable day's work: hence the measurement "rood," which signifies one-fourth of an acre.

The two fields growing wheat and oats were divided into strips about a chain, or half a chain, in width, thus giving an area of either half an acre or a whole acre. Between each strip was a patch of weedy, grassy earth, about a foot wide, which was known as a "balk," left merely to separate strip from strip, although it was a waste of good land.

The strips of land were then divided amongst the inhabitants of the manor; but, as the land was not equally fertile, it was the custom to allot to each man

so many strips of one kind, and so many of another. Thus the "holding" of one person might not be all in the same field; and it often happened that the lord and the parson "held" strips adjoining those of the poorer tenants. This arrangement continued until harvest-time, when a redistribution of the land took place, and when any temporary fences which had been erected were removed in order that cattle could be turned out to feed upon the stubble.

Each villein was usually allotted about thirty of the strips altogether, that is, about ten in each field. They were owned by him, but held as a tenant from the lord of the manor in order that he might cultivate them and pay the usual "dues" for their use.

He had, however, not only to cultivate his own strips, but was compelled to work on the lord's demesne one or two days every week, as well as extra days at busy times. Work done at such seasons as harvest, haymaking, and ploughing, was known as "boon-work." In addition to such week work and boon work, small payments in kind were exacted, such as fowls, eggs, or a bushel of oats.

Villeins were not allowed to leave the district without the lord's consent, hence they were "unfree": but so long as they performed the expected duties they were safe in their holding from interference of any kind.

"Bordars" or "cottars" had fewer strips, probably only one or two, but not more than from five to ten acres. They did not possess either a team of oxen or a plough each, so they usually combined for the purposes of ploughing and other work.

Both villeins and cottars, though unfree, were not real slaves; but, being bound to the land, they may be described as territorial serfs.

Lowest of all were the slaves, who had no land at all, except perhaps a small plot near their hut. They were compelled to give almost the whole of their time to their lord's work.

5. MANORIAL OFFICIALS

The government and general regulation of the manor were carried out by various officials, each of whom had definite duties to perform, the chief of which was to exact the services due from the villeins.

Most important of these officers was the *seneschal* or steward, who usually had the supervision of several manors, which he visited two or three times annually to inquire about rents and services due. As this officer was generally a lawyer, it was his duty to preside over the manorial courts, to which reference has already been made. He also checked the yield of corn, the amount used for seed, and the amount of land ploughed; and he exercised a general supervision over the lower officials, who had charge of the horses, oxen, sheep, and swine, belonging to the lord.

Next in rank was the *bailiff*, who was head of the estate, and whose duty it was to keep an account of the number of acres of meadow cut, the amount of ploughing done, and the quality of the work, that is, whether the furrows were small. He also bought and sold stock for the lord of the manor at local fairs and markets.

The *provost*, or *reeve*, was elected by the villeins from their own number. He was supposed to be the best husbandman among them; and it was his duty to exact the performance of all services due to the lord: hence he was generally unpopular.

At times of ploughing, harrowing, haymaking, and

harvest, a special officer, known as the *hayward*, was employed, who saw that the work was properly done.

In addition, there was a number of inferior officers, such as the head reaper, and the chief herdsman; while, residing within the manor were also the miller, smith, carpenter, and other tradesmen and craftsmen, to whom strips in the common fields were allotted, and by whom they were cultivated in return for services rendered to the community.

CHAPTER II

THE DOMESDAY BOOK

I. ITS PURPOSE

WHEN the Saxon invaders came they settled down on the land they conquered, and in after times it was considered that if a man could prove that he had lived on a piece of land for a long time, he could claim that land as his own.

Not only was there this absolute ownership of land, but, just as leaseholders to-day consider themselves owners, so did the ceorls who held land from a thane, though they were expected to render certain services to their overlord. The *Feudal System*, therefore, existed in England before the Conquest, though the number of people holding land *from* some one was considerably smaller than the number of absolute owners.

There were also large tracts of land, known as Folk-land, mostly covered with forests or marshes,

which were regarded as the property of the country; but the king frequently "let" portions to augment his income. For exceptional services rendered to the country, the king and Witan even granted pieces of this Folk-land by special charter called a *Boc*, the land so given being thenceforth known as Boc-land. This name, later, was applied to all land not owned by the State, whether granted by charter or not.

As soon as William I. had thoroughly established himself in the country, he proceeded to announce that, although the people would be allowed to use the land as heretofore, they were to consider it as "held" *from* him; that is, he set himself up as owner. Thus, *allodialism* was abolished, and *feudalism* took firm root in the country.

Nobles who held land *directly* from the king were called *tenants-in-chief*, and those to whom it was further sublet were known as *tenants-in-mesne*. In either case, the holder became "lord of the manor."

At first the Norman barons paid no taxes of any kind, but in 1083 the king discovered that it would be necessary to tax both Normans and Saxons in order to carry on the work of government efficiently: therefore a tax of six silver shillings per hide of land was imposed throughout the kingdom.

Naturally, the Norman lords did not relish the new arrangement, and numerous devices were adopted for avoiding or minimising the tax. In order, therefore, to make quite clear what each estate should contribute, the king ordered a complete survey of the kingdom to be made. Thus, the main object of the Great Survey, as it has been called, was *fiscal*.

It also became impossible for one man to usurp the

property of another; and, by increasing his power, to imperil the safety of the throne.

2. METHOD OF COMPILATION

Commissioners were appointed to go round the country and collect the matter for the Great Survey; and, as the mass of information was gathered together in about nine months, that is, between Christmas 1085 and Michaelmas 1086, it is probable that the country was divided into circuits, to each of which a separate body of officers was despatched. Differences in phraseology in the recording of the statistics, lend support to the idea.

For the midland counties there were appointed Remy, Bishop of Lincoln, Walter Giffard, Earl of Buckingham, Henry de Ferrers, and Adam, brother of Odo the High Steward.

Associated with each group of commissioners would probably be some important persons of each shire.

When the commissioners, or Justiciaries as they were called, had been appointed to their various circuits, they visited them county by county; but the four northernmost counties, Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Durham, have no record in the Survey. Probably some portions of these counties were included in the surveys of other counties; *e.g.*, portions of Westmoreland and Cumberland are included with the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Durham and Northumberland offered little attraction to the Royal Commissioners, these counties having been laid waste by Odo, brother of the Conqueror, to avenge the murder of Walchere, Bishop of Durham; and Lancashire was not a separate county in those days.

Some idea of the difficulties which had to be overcome by the Justiciaries may be gathered from a knowledge of the state of the country at the time. The greater part of Sussex, Surrey, and Hampshire was thick forest land ; and the midland counties were covered mostly with dense woodlands or bleak moors. For miles around the Wash stretched an immense swamp dotted with small islands such as Ely and Peterborough.

Lack of bridges and good roads increased the difficulty of transit, for the usual method of crossing streams was by stepping-stones for pedestrians, and fords for horsemen and the heavy wooden-wheeled wagons ; but under later Norman rule, the Church undertook to repair roads and build bridges as "a service to God."

In places where clearings had been made in the forest, near to some suitable ford where the river might easily be crossed, there grew up a little town or village ; so that England at the time of the Domesday Survey presented the appearance of a land of forest and swamp dotted with picturesque islands of cultivated land with towns or villages scattered here and there.

Up and down such a country the Justiciaries travelled, calling together a special jury for each assembly, who were compelled to give, *on oath*, the requisite information. To the sheriff, the barons, the hundred, the priest, the reeve, and six villeins, were put such questions as follows :—"What is the name of this manor ? Who held it in the time of King Edward ? Who now holds it ? How many *hides* are there ? How many ploughs belong to the lord of the manor ? How many belong to the villeins, cottars, slaves, freemen, and sokemen ? How much

woodland is there? How much meadow? How much pasture? How many mills and fisheries are there? How much has been added to or taken away from the estate? How much was the whole estate worth in the time of King Edward? How much is it worth now? How much had or has each freeman or sokeman there? Could it be made worth any more?"

Answers to these questions were carefully written down on strips of parchment by trained Norman clerks; and it is evident that a similar set of questions was propounded in each county, because all the statistics are furnished upon the same lines. Thus three sets of facts were obtained respecting each manor; namely, what it had been in the time when King Edward the Confessor was "quick and dead," *i.e.* 5th January 1066; what it was when the Conqueror gave it away; and what it was at the time of the inquiry, 1086. The letters "T.R.E.," *i.e.* "Tempore Regis Edwardi," or "in the time of King Edward," occur frequently in the Great Survey.

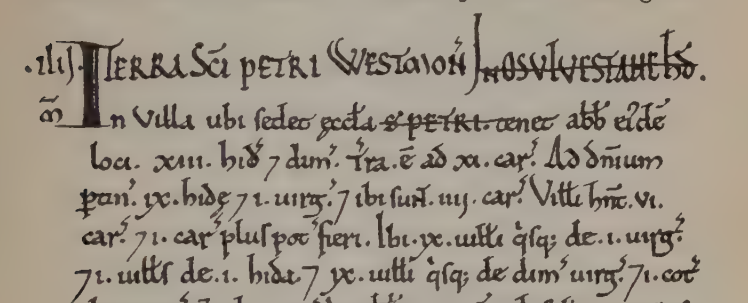
At the head of each report appeared the name of the king, and a list of his possessions in the domain, whilst at the foot was written "All the Frenchmen and Englishmen of the hundred have sworn to this."

All statements referring to each county were then sent up to Winchester, which was then the capital, and arranged in order of importance, county by county, to make up the wonderful old book known as Domesday Book.

3. DIMENSIONS AND CUSTODY OF THE BOOK

This remarkable book was called by the Normans the "Grand Roll," or the "King's Roll"; and,

because it was first kept in the treasury of Winchester Cathedral, it was sometimes described as the "Roll of Winchester." It is thought by some that the present title of the Survey was derived from "Domus Dei," the name of the Chapel or vault in which it was first deposited in the Cathedral at Winchester. Others consider that the name "Domesday Book" was given



Extract from Domesday Book, describing the property of St. Peter's Abbey, Westminster.

by the Saxons, who regarded it as irrevocable as the Last Judgment; recording, as they said, a solemn sentence against them as a nation.

The Survey is in two volumes, of which the second is the smaller. Volume one consists of 382 leaves of vellum, about fourteen and a half inches in height, and nine and three-quarter inches in width, with

almost sixty lines to each page. The second volume contains 450 leaves of parchment, about ten and a half inches by seven inches, with rather less than thirty lines to each page. In the first volume the pages are divided into two columns, whilst in the second the entries are written right across the page.

The writing is very clear and well-formed; and, but for the numerous abbreviations, which are, however, quite simple, it could be easily read. No ornamentation of any kind has been employed, except a dash or stroke of red ink to distinguish capital letters in the text and the name of the county under description.

Much uncertainty has always prevailed as to the early custody of the manuscript, but it is probable that for centuries the two volumes were kept with other exchequer records at Winchester under three locks and keys.

In 1698 they were removed to the Chapter House at Westminster, where they remained until 1857, when they were deposited in the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane, where they are to this day, and where the ancient chest in which they were formerly kept may still be seen,

A translation of the Latin of some parts of Domesday Book will prove both interesting and instructive. The first relates to Oxfordshire :—

"*Oxenefordscire.*—In the time of King Edward Oxford paid, instead of tolls, taxes and all the other duties, to the King £20 and six measures (of 4 gallons each) of honey: and to Count Algar £10. . . . When the king went to war 20 burgesses had to go with him, instead of all the burgesses having to go; if the 20 did

not go, then £20 had to be paid to the king so that all the burgesses might be free from serving. Nowadays Oxford pays £60. . . . In this town there are, including those outside the town-wall, 243 houses assessed for taxes and besides these are 478 houses, ruined and laid waste which cannot be assessed for taxation."

Another, relating to the manor of Beauchamp in Essex, runs thus :—

" The land of the Canons of St. Paul in Essex, and the Hundred of Hinckford. St. Paul held Belchamp in the time of King Edward for a Manor and 5 hides. There were always two plough-teams in the demesne, and twelve plough-teams of the tenants, 24 villeins, 10 bordars, 5 serfs. There is a wood for 60 hogs, 30 acres of meadow, 9 animals, 2 load-horses, 40 hogs, 100 sheep, 5 goats. It was always worth £16."

Here is a translation of another entry relating to a manor in Warwickshire :—

" William Fitz-Ansculf holds of the King Estone, and Godmund of him. There are 8 hides. The arable employs 20 ploughs ; in the demesne the arable employs 6 ploughs, but now there are no ploughs. There are 30 villeins with a priest, and 1 bondsman, and 12 bordars. They have 18 ploughs. A mill pays 3 shillings. The woodland is 3 miles long and half a mile broad. It was worth £4 ; now 100 shillings."

CHAPTER III

GENERAL RESULTS OF THE CONQUEST

I. TRADE

THE Norman Conquest arrested, for a time, the progress of commerce in England; for the Conqueror and his followers were so eager to make their position secure that the only trading which received encouragement was that directly under Norman control.

Because England was rich in money, valuable minerals, agriculture, and the energy of its people, colonies of French artisans and merchants flocked to London and other towns, and Norman castles and other centres of fashion had their French officials and attendants; but the English were kept in such a state of subjection that little desire for trade remained in them. This state of affairs, however, was ultimately of great commercial benefit to the country, for the increased strength of the government, due to the introduction of a domineering class, preserved peace in the country and tended to promote commerce. The luxurious habits of the Norman lords created a demand for jewellery, costly apparel, and other articles of taste, which, therefore, were imported.

Skilled workers from Flanders and Germany settled in the country in order to satisfy the Norman craving for works of art, and London became the most famous mart in Europe, with the exception, perhaps, of Antwerp and Bruges.

Other towns, too, shared in this increased prosperity;

and, during the later years of the Norman period, many of them gained charters which made them independent of the manorial lords.

2. ARCHITECTURE

For a hundred years after their arrival, the Normans

A Typical Norman Keep, Richmond Castle, Yorks.

were rebuilding old churches, or erecting new ones in many parts of the country; and many of our cathedrals, abbeys, and churches bear, to-day, some important Norman work.

Norman castles and other strongholds, due to their industry, are still to be found in various parts of the

country, the Tower of London and Rochester Castle being excellent examples. All Norman structures were massive in appearance; but, as inferior mortar was frequently used, many proved to be not very durable: hence there was much rebuilding later.

The exterior walls of Norman edifices were made to appear quite solid, with openings as few, and as small, as possible; and, in order to strengthen the larger doors and windows, the surrounding walls were thickened.

Arches were generally semi-circular, or horse-shoe, in shape; but later, they were occasionally pointed. The windows of the Early Norman Period were mere slits with semi-circular heads.

In many other respects Norman architecture is distinguished from that of other periods; and it is easy for those who are interested in the subject to settle almost exactly the period during which various famous edifices were erected.

3. LANGUAGE

The language of the Normans was French, for they were descended from Danish settlers who had made Normandy their home almost two centuries before the Conquest, and their Norse dialect had been displaced by the language of their new country. Thus, when the Norman rule came into operation in England, the French language began to be used in all legal proceedings. The Saxons, however, adhered to their own language, which ultimately became the tongue of the race resulting from the blending of the two peoples.

Far-reaching, however, were the results of this fusion of languages, for many Norman-French words

passed permanently into English. A consideration of some of these words in our language reveals the fact that most of them relate to law, hunting, war, and the flesh of animals prepared for the table; whilst the tools of the labourer, and the live animals themselves, bear Saxon names. Thus "ox," "cow," "sheep," "steer," "swine," "calf," "deer," and "fowl" are Saxon; but "beef," "veal," "mutton," "pork," "venison," and "pullet" are Norman. The only exception to the rule is the word "bacon," which was probably the only flesh the majority of the Saxons were able to obtain.

It is, therefore, obvious what the social relationship of the two peoples must have been at the time. The polite luxury of the Normans was ministered unto, to a great extent, by the Saxons, who, under the later Anglo-Saxon kings, had lapsed into a state of sluggishness from which the newcomers gave them a rude awakening; for it now became their duty to dance attendance at the delicate banquets held by their new masters, rather than indulge in the coarser feasting and drinking common in Saxon days.

4. SPORTS

The favourite sport introduced by the Normans was the tournament, which quickly attracted the attention even of the Saxons themselves. This form of mimic warfare took place in an enclosure known as the "lists," at each end of which the champions, mounted and in full armour, assembled. Then, at a signal from the heralds, they dashed towards each other at full speed, meeting in the centre with a crash and a shock that splintered the lances, or hurled one or both of the riders from the saddle. Sometimes

sword and battleaxe were brought into use, dealing mighty blows, and often inflicting deadly wounds.

Outside the enclosure gathered the spectators,

A Tournament as it was held early in the Fifteenth Century.

composed of all social ranks, the king himself frequently being present upon a gallery specially arranged for the royal party, and situated, usually, opposite the very centre of the eastern side of the

lists, opposite which point the shock of the combat was to take place.

This form of sport continued for centuries; and Sir Walter Scott, in his famous novel *Ivanhoe*, gives a most interesting account of such a tournament which took place at Ashby in Leicestershire, in the reign of Richard I.

Hunting, too, engaged the attention of the Normans, the Conqueror himself being so addicted to the pastime that he was said "to love the deer just as if he had been their father." With the object of securing an excellent hunting-ground near Winchester, the capital, the Conqueror caused the New Forest to be placed under the severe Forest Laws of the time, thus making it a royal preserve.

A Falconer from the Luttrell Psalter, Fourteenth Century.

It must be clearly understood, however, that this does not imply that the Conqueror *planted* the New Forest, as is popularly supposed. The term *forest* is derived from the Latin word *foris*, which means "out of doors"; and the area of woodland and heath, waste and wild, between Salisbury and the Solent, was simply declared to be a forest, and was thus set aside for the purpose of hunting. Probably, King William did not plant a single tree there; and the account of the cruelty inflicted upon the poor people in the formation of the New Forest is much exaggerated; for subsequent efforts at reclaiming the land for cultivation have resulted in failure, the area of gorse and heather being practically valueless for agricultural purposes.

The Game Laws, however, did press hard upon the Saxons, who depended largely for a living upon the wild animals, such as rabbits, which they had been accustomed to catch. The penalties attaching to a breach of these laws were very severe, and a man who killed a stag or a hind had his eyes put out. Even down to the present day no one is allowed to kill game unless he first obtain a licence permitting him to do so; and the unpopularity of the Red King, due to these harsh laws, probably accounted for his death.

Visitors to the New Forest may now gaze upon the monument erected to mark the spot where Rufus fell. Nothing of the original stone may now be seen, because it is encased in iron, the better to preserve it. The casing bears the following inscription :—

"Here stood the oak tree on which an arrow, shot by Sir Walter Tyrell at a stag, glanced and struck King William II. (surnamed Rufus) in the breast, of which he instantly died, on the 2nd day of August anno 1100.

"King William II. being slain, as is before related, was laid in a cart belonging to one Purkess, and drawn from thence to Winchester, and buried in the Cathedral Church of that city.

"That where an event so memorable had happened might not be hereafter unknown, this stone was set up by Lord Delaware, who had seen the tree growing in this place, anno 1745. This stone was repaired by John Richard, Earl of Delaware, anno 1789.

"This stone having been much mutilated, and the inscriptions on each of its three sides defaced, this more durable memorial, with the original inscriptions, was erected in the year 1841 by William Sturges Bourne, warden."

IV. GROWTH OF THE PEOPLE

CHAPTER I

MAGNA CHARTA AND THE FIRST HOUSE OF COMMONS

I. SERF EMANCIPATION

At the time of Domesday, serfs formed only 9 per cent. of the population, being much fewer in number than is generally supposed ; and in less than a hundred years after the Conquest, they had disappeared altogether as serfs, and had become merged in the class known as cottars.

Various causes account for their disappearance. Sometimes an owner would grant freedom to a slave, that is, emancipate him, because he had rendered his master exceptional service—for example, had saved his life.

Sir Walter Scott gives an account in *Ivanhoe* of how Wamba, the jester, who had saved the life of Cedric, pleaded that Gurth, his fellow-slave, might be set free. Gurth, the swine-herd, was bidden to kneel at his master's feet, when Cedric, touching him with a wand, exclaimed : " Thrall and bondsman art thou no longer. A lawful free man art thou in town and from town, in the forest as in the field. A hide of land I give to thee, from me and mine to thee and thine, aye and for ever, and God's malison on his head who this gainsays."

His bondsman's collar was then removed from Gurth's neck, who became a landowner and a freeman.

Some serfs obtained liberty at the death of their owners who, acting on the advice of the priest, bequeathed freedom to their bondsmen.

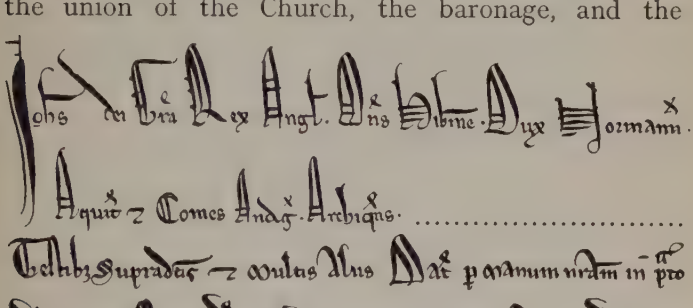
Whatever the reason, the result was the same—liberty; but the attendant ceremony varied. The bondsman was sometimes placed at four cross-roads and informed that he was free to go wherever he pleased. Other owners took their dependants by the hand, and declared them free in the presence of witnesses. Sometimes the ceremony of emancipation was performed in Church or in the County Court in order to render the occasion the more solemn.

2. MAGNA CHARTA

Saxon nobles had exercised considerable power over their dependants, but the advent of the Norman barons, who lorded it over their Saxon neighbours, reduced their authority. The Conqueror, from the first, attempted to prevent his followers from becoming too powerful by decreeing that all should take the oath of fealty to him, that is, promise to be faithful to him "against all men." He further limited their power by arranging that all the lands with which he rewarded them should consist, not of one large tract, but of smaller portions situated in different parts of the country. In spite of this, however, the barons, by means of their strong castles and numerous retainers, proved to be a thorn in the side of the Norman kings, who, therefore, united with the mass of the people against the powerful nobles, until, after many struggles, they were completely defeated in the reign of Henry II.

The barons then adopted new tactics, Norman and

Anglo-Saxon lords uniting against the tyrant King John, until they won, by their joint exertions, the Great Charter of Liberties, destined to become the foundation of a free and limited government which was to take into account the interests of the whole nation; for the Great Charter was a concession obtained by the union of the Church, the baronage, and the



IOHANNES DEI GRATIA REX ANGL. DOMINUS HIBERNE DUX NORMANNORUM, AQUIT. ET COMES ANDGAR. ARCHIEPISCOPIS . . . .
TESTIBUS SUPRADICTIS ET MULTIS ALIIS. DATA PER MANUM NOSTRAM IN PRATO QUOD VOCATUR RONIMED INTER WINDLESOR ET STANES QUINTO DECIMO DIE JUNII ANNO REGNI NOSTRI DECIMO SEPTIMO.

The Beginning and Ending of The Great Charter.

people, not for their own selfish interests, but for the common good of the nation as a whole, against a tyrannical king.

Whilst it is well-nigh impossible to exaggerate the importance of Magna Charta, characterised by the great historian Hallam as "the keystone of English liberty," it is important to remember that it did not *create* English liberties. It summed up, and was the first clear statement of, certain rights belonging to

the people which had been recognised in theory, at any rate, for many years.

From the time when King John put his seal to the Charter on 15th July 1215, English freemen and Norman barons became permanently fused, and the period of contending interests of race and blood thus closed.

All English kings promise to govern in accordance with the principles of the Charter. Of the sixty-three clauses which it contains, one above all others is dear to Englishmen, and deserves to be committed to memory by every English boy and girl—

"No free man shall be taken or imprisoned or disseised (*i.e.* deprived of his lands or goods), or outlawed, or exiled, or anyways destroyed; nor will we go upon him, nor will we send upon him, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.

"To none will we sell, to none will we deny or delay, right, or justice."

The latter portion refers to the practice then in vogue, of appointing judges who were either ignorant of the law, or who deliberately broke it.

Trade, both English and foreign, was encouraged; for, says the Charter—

"There shall be one standard of measures and one standard of weights throughout the kingdom. All merchants shall have liberty safely to enter, to dwell and travel in, and to depart from, England, for the purposes of commerce, without being subjected to any evil tolls, but only to the ancient and allowed customs, except in time of war."

The mode by which the Charter should be enforced was provided for by the appointment of a Council

of twenty-five barons, whose duty it was to complain to the king or justiciar, if any clause was violated; and if no redress was given within forty days, the Council was empowered to seek the aid of the whole nation in enforcing it in any manner possible.

There is no doubt that King John did not mean to "keep" the Charter, but his death put an end to further trouble for the time.

3. THE FIRST HOUSE OF COMMONS

The new king, John's son, Henry III., was a mere boy of ten years; and though not cruel and wicked as his father had been, he was so feeble a king that he was frequently under the influence of favourites, who led him into much waste of money. He was asked to promise on oath, that, if a large sum of money were given him, he would keep the Charter; to which promise he readily acceded; but the barons, finding him unworthy of confidence, appeared at the next Council in full armour, under the leadership of Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester; which gathering was described by the king's partisans as the Mad Parliament of 1258.

Civil war broke out shortly afterwards, and at Lewes, in 1264, Simon de Montfort's army defeated that of the king, who, together with his son Edward, surrendered.

On 14th December 1264, Simon de Montfort, who had assumed supreme power, issued writs in the name of the captive king to the sheriffs, summoning two knights from each shire, and two citizens or burgesses from each of twenty-one specified towns, to attend the king in Parliament in London. Because he succeeded

in bringing together for the first time a Parliament embracing the really popular burgher class, together with representatives of landowners, Earl Simon is generally regarded as "the founder of the House of Commons," although such a title cannot justly be given to any one man.

Not until thirty years later did representatives of towns begin to sit regularly in Parliament; but that called by Simon was the first meeting of "lords spiritual and temporal, knights of the shire, citizens and burgesses." Perhaps he desired to strengthen his own party by an increase in popular influence, but he certainly added strength and power to the people of the towns, whom he regarded as stronger supporters of his cause than his natural allies, the barons.

CHAPTER II

TOWNS.—1. THEIR ORIGIN

Towns originated in many ways; but, chiefly, they are the natural outcome of the primitive settlements of people, which gradually grew in size and importance until they assumed their modern aspect.

At first the settlements were very small indeed, being, in fact, tiny villages, known in Saxon times as "townships." Later, they developed into the larger manorial villages in which the lord, his steward, freemen, villeins and serfs together formed self-contained and self-supporting communities. Shelter, food, and such clothing as was required, were near at hand; and it was therefore unnecessary for the members of those early communities to have intercourse with any neighbouring settlement.

The inhabitants of such villages, however, began to demand, in course of time, articles which their fellow-residents could not supply, but which might be obtained from some settlement not far away: hence the desire for trade arose, necessitating some place, easy of access, where goods might be displayed for sale or exchange.

In the neighbourhood of a bridge or ford, where the river might easily be crossed, and near which was the meeting-place of main roads, such a suitable centre was found; and there the inhabitants of the surrounding villages were able to gather from time to time without inconvenience. Such a centre would then become a market. Many places, to-day, bear names ending in "ford" or "bridge," proving that they originated in this way. Among such may be mentioned Cambridge, Stourbridge, Stratford, Romford, and Oxford.

Several large boroughs, such as London and Bristol, owe their importance to their situation upon a wide estuary, specially suited for trade. The exact site of such a town would be the lowest point at which it was possible to ford or bridge the stream, thus rendering the distance to be travelled by any who resided nearer the mouth of the estuary, as short as possible; and marking also a convenient point where ships could load and unload their cargoes collected from, or to be distributed over, the surrounding district.

We have already seen that military camps, established by the Romans in secure positions, also developed into towns; though, before this happened, many such fortified places were first sacked and deserted. London, Chester, Lincoln, and Exeter, how-

ever, are said never to have sunk into insignificance since their founding by the Roman invaders. Names of towns ending in "chester," "caster," or "cester," such as Winchester, Lancaster, and Worcester, serve to remind us of the Roman occupation; and it is noticeable how such towns are usually perched upon some eminence in order to enhance their military importance.

Danish influence was also strong in the establish-

St. Albans Abbey and Town from the South.

ment of towns in England; for, though these invaders came to plunder, they often engaged in trade, and so gave a stimulus to the growth of places such as Nottingham, Stamford, Leicester, Derby, and Lancaster; whilst the Church of St. Clement Danes in the Strand still reminds us of the inroads of those semi-pirate traders, whose patron Saint, Clement, is usually depicted with his anchor.

From a careful study of the growth of towns we learn that many centres of population owe their origin, not to one cause only, but rather to a com-

bination of causes. The presence of the monasteries of Osney and St. Frideswide, and a strong fortress even in early Saxon days, enabled Oxford to increase in size far more than would the ancient roads converging on the excellent ford across the Thames. Monasteries at Bury St. Edmunds and St. Albans, and a strong fortress perched high upon the castle rock at Nottingham, likewise gave to those places an added importance. The proximity, also, of a powerful lord gave some feeling of security to the market, whilst the amount of produce bought or sold on behalf of the monastery placed the settlement upon a flourishing basis.

It is well to bear in mind that the difference between the Early Saxon township, the manorial village, and our modern boroughs, is not so much one of character, as of size. Of the eighty towns mentioned in the Domesday Survey, few indeed were towns in the modern sense; for, with the exception of such places as London, York, Winchester, Bristol, Lincoln, and Norwich, the towns at that time were little more than villages.

2. THEIR PURPOSE AND GOVERNMENT

The primary purpose of a town was, as we have seen, to provide a market: hence we find that Early Saxon kings made laws governing the conduct of sales and purchases in towns. In order to prevent fraudulent dealings, it was forbidden to expend more than twenty pence, except in open market in the presence of some trustworthy person who would be able to bear testimony in case of dispute. All trade was, in fact, done through some burgess who acted as middleman, so that if any one stole a cow or other

valuable property, it would be the more difficult for him to produce a witness to account for his ownership of the animal.

A market-place, or market-house, where traders might display their wares was soon found to be necessary; and, in order to meet the expense connected with the erection of such a structure, tolls were levied on all who sold goods therein. Special terms were conferred upon residents in the towns, who were allowed to trade there upon payment of a smaller toll than that imposed upon outsiders bringing goods into the market; and, as similar articles bore a uniform price, the inhabitants of the towns thus reaped higher profits than did strangers who traded in the market-place. So strong was this feeling that outsiders should pay special dues before being permitted to expose their wares in the market-place, that merchants, even from a neighbouring town, were classed with those arriving from foreign shores.

Each market possessed an official balance called the "King's beam," which might be used free of charge by burgesses, but which strangers were only allowed to use upon payment of some fee.

In order that the exact amount of goods in the market might be known, no one was permitted to sell outside; so that a fairly safe method of judging whether the supplies were adequate was to inspect the commodities exposed for sale in open market.

The principal articles of food and drink in those days were bread and ale; and, in order to protect buyers from extortion, a law known as the Assize of Bread and Ale was passed, to regulate the price and quality of these commodities. Similarly, an Assize

of Weights and Measures protected customers from the exactions of avaricious tradesmen.

"Forestalling" and "regrating" were also regarded as serious offences. A dealer was said to forestall if he bought up the whole supply of a certain article; and he was guilty of regrating when he attempted to sell it at an unduly high price. Such practices, but for the law, would have been easy in the days before towns were connected up by rail, telegraph, and telephone; but nowadays, "cornering," as it is called, can only be attempted successfully by very rich dealers who can afford to buy up a certain article over an extremely wide area.

To secure due observance of these regulations, it was necessary to appoint officials who would collect the market-tolls and pay over all dues to the king or other lord upon whose manor the town had grown. Tolls for the king were collected by his sheriff, and those for the lord of the manor by his bailiff; but, in both cases the townspeople had no voice in determining the amount to be paid. In the lord's court, whether of the king or noble, permission to hold markets was granted. There were punished all offenders against the market-laws; and there, too, were settled all disputes about the quality and weight of goods.

Townsmen also required officials to safeguard their privileges and prevent the toll-collectors from extorting more than was due to the lord; for it was a common occurrence for such officials to be guilty of defrauding the workers. Gradually many towns obtained the right to manage their own affairs to a considerable extent, under the direction of a borough-reeve or port-reeve elected by themselves.

3. HOW THE TOWNS OBTAINED THEIR CHARTERS

One of the earliest privileges sought by the townsmen was the right to pay a fixed sum as rent to the Crown instead of the taxes which had been hitherto demanded from each member of the town in turn. Before the Conquest, this fixed amount, called the "firma burgi," was usually paid partly in money, and partly in kind; but when the Conqueror arrived, it became customary to pay the amount in money. Some towns possessed this privilege earlier than others, but ere the end of the Norman period all towns had secured, not only the "firma burgi," but also the right to choose a mayor, who replaced the bailiff or reeve.

In course of time the burgesses of many towns sought to rid themselves of these annual payments by purchasing their freedom outright, and kings and nobles showed their readiness to consent to the demand if a sufficiently high amount were offered for the concession. It was, therefore, a question of money in return for emancipation.

Who was to provide the amount? In most cases it fell on the townsmen as a body, who were therefore expected to contribute to the lump sum which was to secure them a charter of liberty to replace the annual payment which was the badge of attachment to some lord.

Special circumstances contributed to the willingness of kings and nobles to grant the coveted charters; for, from the Conquest to the time of Henry III., there was a dearth of ready-money. The civil wars in Stephen's reign, followed by the rush to the Holy Land in the time of the Lion-Hearted King Richard, rendered necessary the replenishing of empty coffers; hence,

for money, they readily disposed of manorial rights over towns, which thereby became free.

As a reward for contributing large sums towards the ransom of Richard I. when he fell into the hands of the Archduke of Austria on his way home from the Holy Land, two towns, Portsmouth and Norwich, were granted charters, freeing them from further annual payments. Rye and Winchelsea also obtained their freedom by providing two ships to enable the same king to proceed to one of the Eastern Crusades in which he engaged.

Many nobles parted with valuable manorial rights for cash to meet the heavy expenses connected with the Crusades in which they delighted.

In this way the "Holy Wars" in the East had great influence upon the freedom of English towns, the cost being defrayed largely by the despised industrial section of the community.

CHAPTER III

GILDS

I. EARLY FORMS OF THE GILD

THE word "gild" is derived from the Saxon word "gildan," to pay, each gild having a fund to which every member contributed. The name was, however, applied in early days to a festival or feast to which men gathered for some special purpose. Later, the word came to mean the company who assembled at the feast.

Religious gilds, the earliest of such associations,

existed in Saxon times, and resembled in some respects the modern Club. Their funds were expended in feasts, in rendering charitable assistance to members who were admitted on oath, and in providing masses and burial fees for the dead.

Membership of the religious gilds was quite voluntary; but compulsory associations were formed later, whose members were pledged to support the interests of all. Such gilds were known as "Frith gilds," that is, gilds of peace; and they aimed at providing assistance in legal matters, defending any members against false accusations and bringing to justice anyone guilty of violence towards him. These Frith gilds held monthly feasts in the villages of Saxon times, and the country feasts of to-day are undoubtedly survivals of those ancient customs. Frith gilds, however, ceased to exist shortly after the Norman Conquest.

2. MERCHANT GILDS

As the villages developed into towns possessing markets, it was found that the one smith, or the one carpenter, who had hitherto supplied the needs of each small community, was no longer able to do so. Instead of each household doing its own spinning and weaving, it also became customary for certain individuals to give their whole attention to the production of one commodity for the whole town. As the demand increased, other workers came to the assistance of those already engaged, so that the number of men occupied in each trade increased rapidly.

These workers were expected to deal fairly with each other and with their customers. There was to be no underselling or cheating of any kind; and we have

already seen that laws were passed to enforce fair dealing. Officials were also appointed to see that the statutes were fairly obeyed both by buyer and seller.

The associations, into whose hands this work of supervision and regulation fell, were called merchant gilds; and during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries they sprang up in most towns. They are first mentioned as existing in 1093; and in 1307, or rather more than two centuries later, there were ninety-two towns which had acquired them, out of the one hundred and sixty then represented in the Parliaments of Edward I., without including those of Wales and Ireland. We may therefore conclude that few towns were without a merchant gild.

It is not definitely known who were members of these associations; but it is certain that the membership, which was numerous, was usually obtained by payment of an entrance fee. No fee was, however, required from the eldest sons of members, and probably younger sons were admitted at reduced rates. Merchants from other centres, too, were eligible, providing they owned land within the town limits.

How were the associations managed, and what was the good of joining them? We may fairly conclude, from the regulations of some gilds which have been handed down to us, how they were conducted, especially as those of Southampton, Totnes, Berwick, and Leicester, towns all widely apart, were similarly managed. At the head of each of these four gilds was a President, who was also an alderman, assisted by two or four Wardens. Sometimes there were two aldermen at the head of affairs; and to these officials,

who were thus three or six in number, was added a council of twenty-four to aid in the general management of affairs.

All the craftsmen in the town probably joined, or at least were represented in, the gild; so that tailors, shoemakers, saddlers, dyers, smiths, tanners, weavers and hosiers were to be found enrolled therein. What were the benefits of membership? The influence exercised by such a combination of workers is sufficient answer to the question. In the first place, the gild merchant controlled all trades within the town, and forbade any, who were not members, to sell any article unless the heavy tax imposed had been first paid. Victuals, however, formed an important exception, anyone being at liberty to deal freely in such commodities; and any attempt at "cornering" food-stuffs was, as explained in a previous chapter, expressly forbidden.

Not only were the gilds able to control all the trades in their own towns, but they were at liberty to enter into certain agreements with the gilds in other towns, by means of which arrangements members were at liberty to deal with the fraternity in neighbouring towns without paying tolls.

Sometimes wealthy merchants who were not members of a gild would attempt to trade; but the gild merchant possessed authority to fine them, so they quickly decided that it would be to their interest to join the gild.

Merchant gilds also acted as provident and sick clubs; for, if any members fell ill, it was the duty of the society to see that the sick brethren were visited and offered financial assistance if necessary. Food and wine were also frequently sent to them from the

gild feasts. If a member died, the brethren were expected to attend his funeral, and afterwards care for the widow and children.

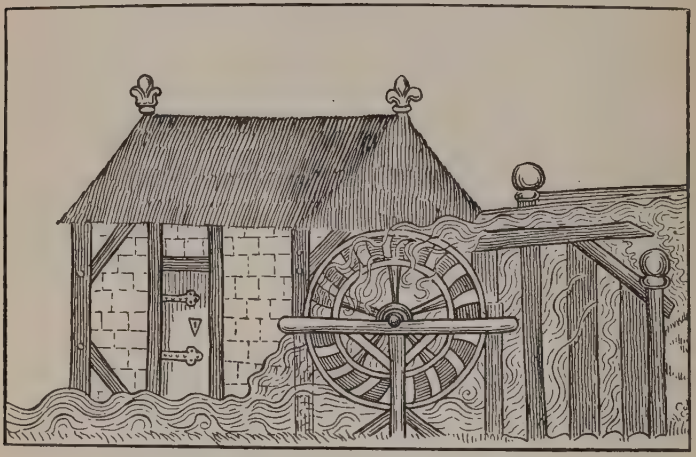
The merchant gild was also a great boon to buyers, for no one member was allowed to raise or lower prices, or sell inferior goods. A standard price and quality for all goods was determined upon by the gild, and it was a punishable offence to depart from the rules set up. Thus all traders were compelled to sell openly; and an attempt was actually made to induce all workers in one trade to reside in the same street in order to prevent a difference in the price and quality of goods. This rule accounts for the names of many streets in the older towns of the country; Sadlergate, Bridlesmithgate, Wheelergate, Waingate and Baxtergate being the streets where the saddlers, bridlemakers, wheelmakers, wagon-builders and bakers lived respectively.

3. CRAFT GILDS

The rapid growth of towns, and the consequent increase in the number of people engaged in each occupation, soon rendered it well-nigh impossible for the officers of the merchant gild to supervise adequately every trade in any one town. Greater opportunities for cheating, therefore, became common; and friction arose between craftsmen and members of the merchant gild to whom the former were obliged to sell their goods.

Workers in the various trades then decided to organise themselves into craft gilds, and manage their own affairs entirely, without the intervention of the merchant gilds; and in this way the struggle between the two parties ceased. Instead, therefore,

of having only one gild in the town, many came into existence, for each trade had its own association. There were craft gilds in connection with all who were engaged in making clothing, including the shearmen, woolcombers, dyers, fullers, spinners, weavers, tailors, hosiers, and clothiers; with metal-workers, embracing goldsmiths, coppersmiths, bridlesmiths, armourers, silversmiths, and blacksmiths; with



A Watermill, from the Luttrell Psalter.

leather-workers, among whom were skinners, tanners, and glovers; with wood-workers, consisting of carpenters, joiners, and wheelwrights; with bakers, millers, brewers, and bricklayers. There were no outsiders, for every workman was expected to join his own trade gild.

The organisation of the craft gilds was similar to that of the merchant gilds. Wardens, bailiffs or masters, who were elected at full meetings of the

craft, supervised the industry generally, and had power to punish offenders. New members were only admitted upon the approval of the officials after they had given evidence that they possessed sufficient skill, and had served an apprenticeship.

Good work was expected of members; and for this reason night employment was prohibited as being likely to lead to inferior output. To reduce scamped and bungled work to a minimum, responsible men called searchers were appointed, whose duty it was to see that customers received fair treatment. Fines were inflicted upon workmen guilty of cheating, or of doing careless work; and, if the fines were not promptly paid, their belongings were seized.

Benefits for old age and sickness, contributions to the cost of burials, pensions for widows, and other advantages were included in membership of the craft gilds. These benefits the gilds were enabled to confer upon needy brethren, on account of the generosity of wealthy members, who not only gave liberally during their lifetime, but left large sums of money, or founded almshouses for the relief of their fellow-craftsmen. Gild companies, such as the Merchant Taylors' and Drapers' Companies, still exist in London; but their power and influence is small compared with their flourishing conditions of former times.

Each gild-master was allowed only a limited number of apprentices, who were usually sons of members. In order to prevent any craft being overcrowded with workers, which state would have encouraged underselling, it was a rule that a heavy admission fee should be paid with each apprentice. This was followed by a long apprenticeship, usually

of seven years, after which he became a freeman and member of his gild.

> "But when my seven long years are out,
> Oh then I'll marry Sally."

It is worthy of note that in the old gilds both rich masters and poor journeymen were included, whilst the modern trades unions embrace only workmen.

CHAPTER IV

THE BLACK DEATH AND THE PEASANTS' REVOLT

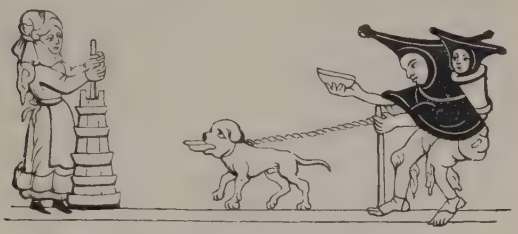
I. DECAY OF THE MANORIAL SYSTEM

We have seen how that under Norman rule the daily lives of the people were so bound up with the land and its management, that little change took place for two centuries. In the year 1300, however, greater changes were beginning; for, by that time, the fusion of Saxon and Norman had been effected, whilst, as already shown, the use of coined money, the Holy Wars, and general increase in trade, tended to the improvement of the condition of the lower classes, who were beginning to demand, and receive, money wages for their labour.

These changes, however, were not wrought suddenly; for, on many manors, the lords preferred the ancient methods of managing their estates: but something happened to hasten the change which otherwise

would probably have required hundreds of years to effect completely.

A terrible plague, which probably started in China in 1333, travelled westward until, in August 1348, it broke out at Melcombe Regis in Dorsetshire. By



A Woman Churning and a Blind Beggar with Child, about 1316.

the end of the year, it had affected the whole south of England from London to Bodmin; and, rapidly spreading northward and eastward, it attacked the Midlands, East Anglia, Wales, Ireland, and, last of all, Scotland, where, in 1350, it was at its worst.

This dreadful sickness, known as the Black Death, was particularly fatal to man, whole families being blotted out by its ravages, whilst sub-human creatures were included amongst the victims, who died within a few hours after being attacked.

So appalling were its ravages that at least one-third of the whole population of England succumbed to it within a few months, very few recovering after being once seized.

In England, the plague had abated by the autumn of 1349; but during those fourteen months sad havoc had been wrought in the ranks of the people.

2. RISE IN WAGES

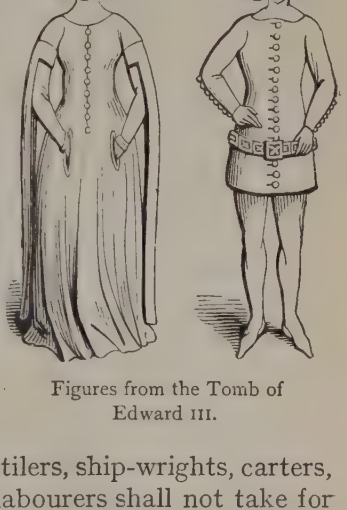
The "Great Plague" of 1665 is often regarded as a more terrible visitation than the Black Death; but such is not really the case, for the results of the latter were more far-reaching. Thousands of labourers were swept away by it; and the few remaining were totally inadequate to cope with the work to be done: hence crops were left rotting in the fields, and cattle were lost through lack of care. Many lords were unable to obtain their customary share of the labour and produce of the manor, and their difficulties were still further increased because those of their number who had adopted the wage-paying system, not only continued it, but offered *higher wages* to attract labourers who had deserted other manors. The rise in agricultural wages generally was 50 per cent., whilst in harvest-time they rose 60 per cent. above the old rate.

In these circumstances, the lords who refused to pay wages, and who demanded the customary amount of service and produce, decided to appeal to the king for assistance in forcing the labourers to work under former conditions.

King Edward III. did not wait for Parliament to meet, but issued a proclamation ordering that no man should pay or demand the higher wages; but that all should abide by the rate current in 1347, two years before the plague. Any labourer refusing to work for the employer entitled to his services was to suffer heavy penalties.

When Parliament assembled in 1350, the proclamation was ratified under the title of the *Statute of Labourers*, which fixed a scale of wages to which both

employer and employed must adhere. In spite of the penalty imposed, the statute failed in its object, so that in 1362 and 1368 the law was re-enacted with penalties more stringent than ever. Instead of fines, imprisonment was to be inflicted. All who deserted their employers were to be declared outlaws, and, if caught, branded on the forehead with the letter "F," in token of their falsity; while upon any town attempting to conceal them was imposed a fine of ten pounds.



Figures from the Tomb of Edward III.

Not only were agricultural workers included in these statutes, but all classes of artisans whose labour was distantly connected with the farm, as the following clauses from the statute will show:—

"Likewise saddlers, skinners, white-tawers, cordwainers, tailors, smiths, carpenters, masons, tilers, ship-wrights, carters, and all other artisans and labourers shall not take for their labour and handiwork more than what, in the places where they happen to labour, was customarily paid to such persons in the said twentieth year and in the other common years preceding, as has been said; and if any man take more, he shall be committed to the nearest jail in the manner aforesaid."

Almsgiving was forbidden as follows:—

"Let no one, under the pain of imprisonment,

presume, under colour of piety or alms, to give anything to such as can very well labour, or to cherish them in their sloth, so that thus they may be forced to labour for the means of life."

3. RISE IN PRICES

The effect of increased wages on the cost of commodities was peculiar; for, instead of an all-round rise in prices, only some articles were affected. Workers were able to obtain their food-stuffs at the old prices, because labour had little effect on the supply of such provisions as were needed by the agricultural worker. Articles such as fish, tiles, wheels, iron-work, and all agricultural implements, which depended entirely upon the efforts of the labourer, and the cost of transit, increased largely in price. As such articles were required chiefly by landowners, who therefore suffered most from the increased prices, the peasant and artisan were the principal gainers, their wages having increased, whilst the cost of living had changed little.

The upper classes were, however, protected by the statute which enacted :—

"Likewise let butchers, fishmongers, hostlers, brewers, bakers, pulters, and all other vendors of any victuals, be bound to sell such victuals for a reasonable price, having regard for the price at which such victuals are sold in the adjoining places : so that such vendors may have moderate gains."

Large landowners, discovering that it would be impossible for them to continue the system of farming under these circumstances, decided that they must either accept lower rents, or turn off the tenants and cultivate the land for themselves. As they found it

impossible to adopt the latter course, they decided that they would accept lower rents from their tenants.

In this way small peasant-farmers increased in number, and the "stock and land lease" system became general, by means of which, not only land but a certain quantity of stock, was leased, for which the tenant must account either in money or kind at the expiration of his lease. Under these conditions there was some indication that the agrarian discontent was rapidly subsiding, but the foolish action of landowners, supported by the lawyers, soon provoked a state of revolt in the ranks of the people.

4. THE PEASANTS' REVOLT, 1381

The Black Death had stirred up in the breasts of labourers a spirit of independence, which the writings of William Langland and the teachings of some of Wycliffe's followers were to rouse still more.

In his *Piers the Plowman*, Langland denounces the upper classes and champions the cause of the labouring people; whilst the followers of Wycliffe made the peasants still more restless by declaring that as it was lawful to refuse to pay tithes to unworthy priests, so rents and services might be withheld from undeserving lords.

All this, coupled with the preaching of the mad priest of Kent, John Ball, who for twenty years before the rising had been exhorting the people to rebel against the tyranny of their oppressors, brought the spirit of dissatisfaction to boiling-point.

> "When Adam delved and Eve span,
> Who was then the gentleman?"

This favourite text of John Ball was soon on every-

body's lips; and it was openly said that God did not will that wicked judges, bishops, and lords should be rich and powerful whilst the multitude was wretched and poor.

An attempt to exact an oppressive poll-tax brought about the crisis in May 1381; for the wars in which Edward III. gloried had left the country extremely poor when Richard II. succeeded to the throne. There was, at first, some attempt at making the rich pay more than their poorer brethren; but it soon became evident that the amount yielded was insufficient, so that at last three groats was the amount demanded from all persons over fifteen years of age.

As a groat—that is, fourpence—was equal to about six shillings and eightpence of our money, the tax became quite impossible for a poor man who had several members in his family subject to the tax; and, in order to avoid it, great deception was practised. To discover the defaulters, commissioners were appointed to count the people, and compel payment of the tax.

This led, in June, to the rising in Kent of an army of poor, made desperate by oppression. They chose as their leader a man named Wat Tyler, probably an Essex man who had had some experience in the French wars. Tyler, being of ready wit and action, proved himself to be a capable leader, and soon gained the entire confidence of his following. Armed with sticks, hatchets, scythes, bows, arrows, and any other weapons which came to hand, this army of ragged men worked havoc upon those they regarded as enemies. They murdered the Archbishop of Canterbury, and Sir Robert Hales, the King's Treasurer; and, after sacking the residences of their victims, they proceeded to pillage and burn the palace of John of Gaunt,

Duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle. They next attacked the Temple, the headquarters of the hated lawyers, murdering as many as they found there.

The king, after consultation, decided to meet the rebel leaders at Mile End to discuss grievances. Many of the rebels were satisfied that if the king once heard their demands he would grant all they required, provided they could see him apart from the influence of lords, bishops, and lawyers.

When they met the young king, the rebel leader enumerated their grievances, and demanded the abolition of serfdom and the substitution of money rent instead of labour services, for the lands held. A free market for the sale of goods, and pardon for all taking part in the revolt, were also included in the demands of the rebels. All these things the king promised, commanding the pardons to be written out at once and handed to the peasants, who then dispersed to their homes, believing that their object had been fully accomplished.

The story of the slaying of Tyler at the hands of Sir William Walworth, Lord Mayor of London, a few days later, is well known.

Risings, which were partly successful, occurred in Kent, Essex, Herts, Surrey, Yorkshire, Hants, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Somersetshire; and, although a few leaders were imprisoned and executed, the Peasants' Revolt proved the power of the combined labourers against the landowners. Still, the great landlords very often failed to carry out their promises, and it is doubtful whether in the end the peasants did not take longer to get free than they would have taken if the Revolt had not roused feeling against them, and make the lords eager to keep them in subjection.

CHAPTER V

SHEEP-FARMING AND THE WOOLLEN INDUSTRY

1. THE RISE OF SHEEP-FARMING

THE Black Death and the Peasants' Revolt had proved to the great landowners that labour could no longer be obtained at the old rates, although a few toilers continued to work for their lords without receiving wages at all. One of two alternatives, therefore, must be chosen: either the higher scale of wages should be paid, or the number of labourers must be reduced.

Fortunately for the landlords, there was at the time a great demand for wool, especially English wool; and it soon became evident that if the corn-growing lands were converted into pasture upon which sheep could be fed, fewer labourers would be required, because a few shepherds would be able to tend quite a large number of sheep where formerly many workers had been needed for the farming operations.

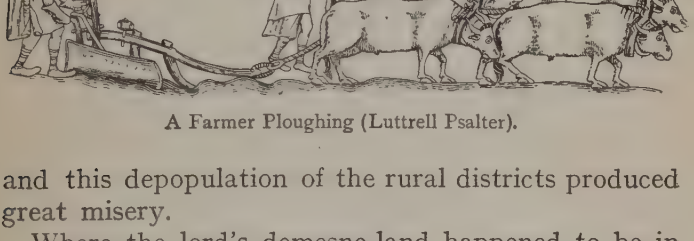
As a consequence, many men were thrown out of employment; for sheep-farming naturally spread with great rapidity. Not only did landowners gain by working their farms at a reduced outlay, but the wool fetched a high price owing to the increase in the manufacture of native cloth. This state of things brought about further injustice to the unfortunate labourer.

2. ENCLOSURES

Under the open-field system of cultivation, the serfs

had been allotted small patches of land, frequently mixed up with the strips of the landowner, there being few hedges to mark off one man's portion from that of his neighbour. In order to carry on sheep-farming upon a large scale, it became absolutely necessary to set about "enclosing" the land. Such a procedure, however, would be difficult, so long as each resident possessed strips of land in various parts of the estate; and it became still more difficult where the land was the property of more than one owner.

It was now the desire of owners to get rid of their dependants in order that the land might be enclosed;



A Farmer Ploughing (Luttrell Psalter).

and this depopulation of the rural districts produced great misery.

Where the lord's demesne-land happened to be in one compact whole, it was quite easy to convert it from arable to pasture-land; and, though many workers were thereby deprived of the opportunity of earning wages, and suffered acutely, there was no breach of the law. Owners, too, finding that their presence was not absolutely necessary to the successful management of the sheep-runs, began to vacate their manor-houses and reside in the neighbourhood of the Court, where their wealth was spent in luxury. In this way many dependants, other than workers on the land,

were deprived of their means of existence. Quite recently, something similar has been the experience of the crofters in the Highlands of Scotland, who were ejected to make room for sheep-farms and deer-forests.

The appetite of the landowners was not satisfied, however, by enclosing their demesne-lands: they seized upon the waste or common lands upon which the sheep and cattle, both of landlord and tenant, had been accustomed to feed. The Statute of Merton, passed in 1235, empowered the lord to enclose certain of the common lands, provided enough pasture was left for the use of his tenants. Here, however, was the difficulty. Who was to decide whether enough had been left? There is no doubt that the lord himself frequently decided, and left little or none for the sheep, pigs, cattle, and goats of the villagers, who were likewise deprived of their right of cutting turf and gathering wood for fuel.

The remedy at law was difficult and costly; hence many of these unfortunate tenants gave up the struggle and drifted to the towns. Landowners, in the first half of the sixteenth century, often evaded the Statute of Merton by driving a single furrow across the enclosed common, and declaring that it was under the plough; and, as the governing class consisted largely of landowners, a small fine was the utmost penalty the government inflicted for this evading of the law.

In the case of the open fields, the greatest misery was caused by enclosures. Redistribution of the scattered strips was attempted; but the tenants undoubtedly were treated unfairly, and between 1450 and 1550, thousands were driven entirely from their holdings without compensation. Sometimes the

strips of the copyholder or freeholder were purchased, or other portions were given in exchange if the "holding" interfered with the proposed sheep-run of the lord.

Parliament attempted, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, to stop further enclosures, but with little result. One statute enacted that no man should keep more than two thousand sheep; but the law was easily evaded by providing another thousand for each of the farmer's children. In a book entitled *Chrestoleros*, printed in 1598, the author, Thomas Bastard, thus describes the state of affairs:—

"Sheep have eat up our meadows and our downes,
Our corn, our wood, whole villages and townes;
Yea, they have eat up many wealthy men,
Besides widowes and orphan children,
Besides our statutes and our iron lawes
Which they have swallowed down into their maws,
Till now I thought the proverb did but jeste
Which said a black sheep was a biting beast."

3. EFFECT OF ENCLOSURES ON CORN-GROWING

The question may reasonably be asked, "Did not the increase in pasture at the expense of arable land produce a scarcity of corn, and consequent increase in price?" Such, however, was not the case.

In the first place, it must be remembered that enclosures for sheep-farming were not general throughout the country; for, although Kent, Essex, Herts, Suffolk, and Worcester were mostly enclosed, whilst Northants, Norfolk, and Shropshire were partly so, it is recorded that Yorks, Lincolnshire, and Derbyshire in the north, and Oxford, Berks, Bucks, Beds, Hereford, and Gloucester in the Midlands, were not

set apart for sheep-farming. It is thus evident that a considerable area was available for corn-growing.

Secondly, corn did not become more scarce in England owing to enclosures, because farms, being then more compact, produced a greater quantity of corn than had been possible on the scattered strips. The holder was also at liberty to farm in any way he chose, not being bound by special rotation of crops; and, whenever his fields were utilised for grazing purposes, the land was thereby improved.

Thus, although discontent was rife on account of the enclosing of land, the decrease in the amount of corn produced was not great. Vagrants increased in number; and in Norfolk a rebellion, headed by Ket, a tanner, broke out against the enclosure system.

4. GENERAL RESULTS OF ENCLOSURES

Enclosures continued to the end of the sixteenth century, and only slackened then because wool was no longer so profitable. English wool had been considered, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the very best in Europe; and expert Flemish weavers were always prepared to pay high prices for it, as they had a ready sale for the excellent cloth they wove.

There had thus been created in England a great woollen industry which provided enormous revenues for the king, increased the circulation of money, enriched landowners, destroyed many villages, thereby rendering thousands temporarily homeless, and established the domestic system of manufacturing, many men being engaged along with their wives and children in spinning wool or weaving cloth in their own homes; and, although England still retained many open

fields with their strips, there had sprung up a system of fields clearly separated by trim hedges or stone walls. The woollen industry, however, ultimately benefited the country, by providing new work for many who had formerly been engaged in agriculture, which, under the new conditions, progressed favourably, but required fewer " hands."

CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL CUSTOMS

I. DWELLINGS

The single-roomed dwellings of Saxon times, with their rush-strewn floors, were, ere the twelfth century ended, supplanted by more comfortable buildings where, in addition to the great hall and kitchen, an upper room was to be found. In the kitchen, most of the cooking and housework was done, the upper room serving as the sleeping apartment of the master and mistress of the house. Opening from the " solar," as this bedroom was called, were, at a later date, additional rooms, where slept other members of the family and maid-servants of the establishment, the men-servants continuing to sleep in the hall.

Tapestry and embroidery hangings, woven by the ladies of the household, served not only as mural decorations, but also as protection against the draughts, which were so powerful that candles only gave a steady light when placed in lanterns.

Towards the close of the twelfth century, chimneys

appeared; but their use was not common until many years later.

Holes in the wall, which formerly had served to light the room, were replaced by windows of glass, though these were at first only to be found in churches and in the dwellings of the wealthier people. So precious were these windows that, even in the

Little Wenham Hall, Suffolk, Thirteenth Century.

sixteenth century, they were often taken out of their frames and carefully preserved during the absence of their owners. The middle classes had to content themselves with horn or oiled paper instead of glass.

Furniture, consisting of chairs for members of the family and benches for the servants, was, for the most part, rude; and, instead of sheets, which were then little used, blankets and rugs served as bed-covering.

2. TABLE CUSTOMS

Artificial light was very expensive, tallow being twopence a pound, an amount equivalent to half a crown in our day, whilst wax was still dearer. Consequently it was customary to retire with the setting sun, supper generally being served about five or six o'clock.

Early rising was of course the rule, the breakfast partaken of at sunrise being followed a few hours later by the chief meal of the day, dinner. For this meal the whole household assembled in the great hall, down the centre of which stretched the long table, where, at the lower end, gathered the servants and retainers. At the upper end was a raised platform or dais, where sat the master and mistress, together with their guests and other members of the family.

So much importance was attached to feasting that books of menus and recipes were obtainable. The same kinds of meats were used then as now, but a much larger proportion of fish was eaten than now, partly because of the days of abstinence, when it took the place of flesh food. Vegetables, wines, and other luxuries were also supplied in abundance.

Little art was required in preparing the table for such a feast. Fingers were freely used, where now we employ forks; the meat being placed and carved upon huge flat cakes of inferior bread. Through these the gravy found its way to the table-cloth, which did duty a whole month before being washed. Each diner was supplied with a basin of water and a towel in order that greasy fingers might be cleansed.

The interval between dinner and the last meal of the day was spent in various ways, in minstrel song

and story if the weather was too wet to permit of hawking and hunting.

As the larger households in those days frequently consisted of several hundred persons, preparations for feasting were necessarily on a large scale. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that the ovens were often about twenty feet in diameter, and so lofty that a man might with ease stand upright in one of them.

Huge spits, too, were common, upon which it was possible to roast a whole ox; and boys whose duty it was to turn them were regularly employed. Chief and assistant cooks, scullions and other workers, completed the staff of servants. It was to some similar post that the pretender Lambert Simnel was appointed after his defeat in 1487, in the reign of Henry VII. The lowest grade, who were responsible for all the dirty work, were generally known as "blackguards," and there is no doubt that the modern meaning of the term originated from the troublesome characters who often did duty in the gigantic kitchens of former days.

3. COSTUME

For centuries the garb of the labourer remained almost unchanged, but that of the upper classes altered frequently. Much information about modes of dress in bygone times may be acquired by careful observation of the brasses and monumental effigies to be found in many old churches and other buildings.

Before the end of the fourteenth century, ladies had ceased to plait the hair, and had adopted the practice of coiling it in a net, over which a veil was thrown. The plain, tight-sleeved, close-fitting dresses worn were so long that the feet were usually hidden. Some-

times shorter garments, called "cottehardies," were worn, over which were thrown long cloaks richly lined with furs of various kinds.

Men of the time are generally represented wearing long garments extending to the feet and gathered

Canterbury Pilgrims, from a Fifteenth Century MS. The illustration shows the River Wall of the City of London.

in at the waist by means of a girdle, their legs being encased in long stockings or leggings.

Before the end of the fifteenth century dress underwent so many changes and became so extravagant that laws were made to regulate the quality of the materials used. Yeomen and handicraftsmen were

forbidden to wear jewellery; and their wives were not allowed to appear in silk, or the more expensive furs. Similar laws applied to the dress of all grades of society; and, but for the fact that these statutes were often disregarded, the style of apparel would have been evidence of the rank of the wearer.

Long trailing dresses, shoes so long and peaked that shoemakers were frequently fined for breaking the regulations concerning their dimensions, and high-crowned hats adorned with feathers were commonly affected in the reigns of Richard II. and Henry VI.

The poet Geoffrey Chaucer, who lived in the latter half of the fourteenth century, supplies, in his *Canterbury Tales*, much information about the modes of dress then common.

About "The Wife of Bath," a woman of fashion, he says:—

"Hir coverchiefs ful fyne weren of ground—
I dorste swere they weyeden ten pound—
That on a Sonday weren upon hir heed.
Hir hosen weren of fyn scarlet reed;
Ful streit yteyd,[1] and shoes ful moyste[2] and newe;
Upon an amblere[3] esily she sat,
'Ywympled wel,'[4] and on hir heed an hat,
As brood as is a bokeler or a targe;[5]
A foot mantel aboute hir hipes[6] large,
And on hire feet a paire of spores sharpe."

The young squire was gaily attired, as the following quotation shows:—

"Embrouded was he, as it were a meede,
Al ful of fresshe floures whyte and reede,
Short was his gowne, with sleves longe and wyde."

---

[1] Tied.
[2] Bright.
[3] Ambler or easy-paced pony.
[4] Full-closely veiled.
[5] Target.
[6] Hips.

The yeoman "was clad in cote and hood of grene"; whilst the merchant wore

"Upon his heed a Flaundryssh bevere hat;
His bootes clasped faire and fetisly."

The frankeleyn, that is, the country gentleman, was dressed more showily:

"An anlaas [1] and a gipser [2] al of silk
Heeng at his girdel whit as morne milk."

4. WAYFARERS

Between the ends of the twelfth and fifteenth centuries, roads underwent considerable improvements, especially under the manorial system; for then the lord of the manor would keep his roads in good repair in return for the tolls which he exacted from travellers. But when the manorial system declined, the state of the roads became worse, except perhaps those stretching between important towns, which were, in consequence, more largely used.

A Lame Beggar about 1480.

During the reign of Edward I. statutes were passed requiring the clearing of two hundred yards of all lands bordering the great highways, probably to prevent thieves or highwaymen lying in wait. Before the termination of the fourteenth century all carts and horses taking merchandise into London were taxed in order to pay for the maintenance of the roads.

It must not be imagined, however, that these early

[1] Knife or dagger. [2] Purse or pouch.

highways were anything like those of our day. As most people journeyed on foot or horseback, it was possible to travel over the roughest of roads, upon which modern vehicles would have come to grief. Horse-litters were frequently used by ladies and invalids. They resembled carriages without wheels, which, by means of shafts, were attached to two horses, one in front of the other.

Inns where refreshment might be obtained were plentiful along the roads. Travellers, too, were numerous; for there was no general post and no railroads, and it was necessary to keep a sharp look out, especially if the route lay near a forest, where outlaws and rogues of all descriptions swarmed. Along these roads regularly passed messengers, quack-doctors, friars, pedlars, pilgrims, minstrels, and other wayfarers.

A Preaching Friar on a Portable Pulpit.

V. TUDOR AND STUART TIMES

CHAPTER I

THE MERCANTILE SYSTEM

I. MEANING OF THE TERM

With the advent of the Tudors to the English throne, there began a period of rest from the long Wars of

Soldiers about 1480. Archers and Crossbowman.

the Roses, which had, for so many years, devastated the country. The policy of the new line of sovereigns was not only peace with its consequent prosperity, but the acquisition of that national power and influence which was destined to make England really great.

How was this national strength to be attained? It was, they believed, to be accomplished only by the State regulation of trade and industry by means of what was known as the Mercantile System.

There was really nothing new in the policy, for, in most respects, it had existed from the days of Richard II.; but different methods had been employed from time to time. Throughout the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries this system survived, during which time individual interests had to give place to measures conducive to national welfare: a marked contrast to the policy of Edward III., which encouraged the alien merchant to the detriment of the home trader.

The new idea was to make England completely independent of the foreigner. We were to aim at having a strong fleet, large supplies of home-grown corn, employment for all, and an ample supply of gold in the country. These four aims will now be briefly discussed.

2. NATIONAL SHIPPING

The Tudors desired to have a navy worthy of the country; and, in order to attain their object, they gave the utmost encouragement to shipping. More royal ships, on a larger and stronger plan than formerly, were built; and merchant vessels increased largely in number. If there were plenty of ships, there would likewise be a large body of sailors; and it would be possible, they thought, for the vessels to be armed and used in war if necessary.

With the object of increasing still further the number of merchant ships, Navigation Acts were passed, the best known of which was that of 1651. These laws

enacted that no merchandise should be brought from Asia, Africa, or America, except in English ships, unless the goods were European brought directly from

Merchant Ships on the Thames in 1616.

their place of growth or manufacture. Not only were the vessels to be the property of English *owners*, they were to be of English *build*, navigated by English *commanders*, and manned, at least to the extent of three-fourths, by English *sailors*.

It is claimed for such Acts that they increased the commercial importance of England at the expense of that of the Dutch, which was said to have been ruined by them; but it is quite probable that the wars of Holland against France and Spain were largely responsible for the loss to the Dutch trade. The first Navigation Act, dating from 1381, was passed with the view of increasing the navy of Edward III.; and from that date commenced a long series of such Acts, that of 1651 continuing in force up to 1825.

Henry VIII. delighted in enforcing these Navigation Acts, except when he found it more profitable to exempt certain people who paid him well for the privilege. The same sovereign was responsible for establishing *Trinity House* by granting a charter, authorising Thames pilots, under the management of a governor and wardens, to make certain rules for mariners. Queen Elizabeth subsequently granted Trinity House the privilege of settling the erection of buoys, beacons, and other sea marks; and, after the Reformation, she caused an Act to be passed, enforcing the eating of fish on certain fast days—a custom that had been in danger of falling into disuse. In this way the fishing trade, as a nursery for the navy, received encouragement.

3. ENGLISH CORN-GROWING

A similar impetus was given to the growing of corn in England, it being thought that an ample supply grown at home would make us independent of the foreigner—a matter of vast importance in time of war. Parliament therefore encouraged English farmers to produce as much corn as possible by taxing all foreign

corn brought into the country, unless the home price happened to be high, when the alien was allowed to land his produce free from tax. In this way English farmers were "protected" from undue competition with foreign producers. They were even allowed to *export* corn if the price at home was very low.

All this tended to keep up the price of English corn, and therefore encouraged home-growers to produce as much as possible. There was another reason for this desire to increase the prosperity of English corn-growers: as fishermen were regarded as the basis of a strong navy, so were the workers on the land looked upon as the future soldiers of the country.

On the whole, English farmers responded to this policy, and gave themselves up largely to corn-growing, in spite of the advantages offered by sheep-rearing; and there were few years when it was necessary to import corn. It is, however, of the utmost importance to remember that the regulations of the time aimed only at making the country powerful, and not at producing abundant supplies of cheap commodities. Nowadays, it is absolutely necessary to provide for the economical feeding of an immense population: hence the measures adopted under the Mercantile System would be unsuited to modern conditions.

4. HOME TRADE

The country could not, of course, become great unless its people were suitably and profitably employed: hence it was essential that there should be plenty of work for everybody. How was this end to be attained? It was thought that English manufacturers would only be able to dispose of their wares in spite of foreign competition, if aliens were prevented

from sending their goods into the country, to the detriment of English-made articles.

Laws were, therefore, made forbidding the importation of certain manufactured articles; because, if such goods were made in England, work would be provided for numbers of English people. Any raw materials, such as silk, which we were unable to produce, might be brought freely into the country; but no raw goods, which English workers were capable of manufacturing, were to be exported. The chief aim was to provide work *in the country*; and even alien craftsmen were encouraged to settle in England, if they brought with them a new industry which might ultimately benefit Englishmen.

5. MONEY

The main object, however, was to keep in the country a plentiful supply of gold and silver; for, in those days, men thought that the most powerful nation was the one possessing the greatest amount of money. To prevent the exportation of gold was, according to their view, of paramount importance. At first they attempted to prevent any such exportation of the precious metals by compelling aliens to purchase commodities in the country after they had disposed of their wares here. This plan, however, was found to be unworkable, because it was easy to smuggle money out of the country.

Next, they thought that their object would be achieved by increasing exports (except raw materials), and reducing imports.

History teaches us that the Mercantile System was successful; for, in those centuries during which it was tried, England certainly proved to be a powerful

nation. The Armada was driven from our shores with great loss, and much energy was spent in expanding the boundaries of the Empire.

It is, however, true that the Mercantile System was not based on sound economic principles; for we well know, to-day, that if the amount of money increases in a country, prices at once rise. For this reason, people would be encouraged to dispose of their goods in the country where the highest prices are to be obtained, thereby increasing imports. Exports would, at the same time, diminish until the surplus of imports would again lead to a reduction in price. We may conclude, therefore, that what is good for one age, may not be equally advantageous in other times.

CHAPTER II

ENGLISH TRADING COMPANIES

I. THEIR ORIGIN

ALMOST the whole of our foreign trade was, for centuries, in the hands of other countries; and, to the example set by these foreign merchants, we owe the existence of our great trading companies. For mutual protection against the bands of pirates which infested the seas in those days, North German merchants had entered into a league for purposes of trade; and this Hanseatic League, as it was called, together with trading companies composed of Italian merchants, had monopolised most of our foreign trade. They were able to carry safely their cargoes of cottons, silks,

velvets, spices, wines, and other valuable commodities, which they exchanged for the products of the countries visited.

The Hanseatic League, which was probably founded about 1200 A.D., had, for hundreds of years, a warehouse in London known as the "Steelyard," near where Cannon Street Station now stands. Parliament, in 1552, abolished the privileges of the "Steelyard"

The Steelyard: the Warehouses of the Hanseatic League.

in order to pacify English traders; and, although Queen Mary, in 1554, restored some of these privileges, the Hanseatic League, which had done so much for English trade, gradually sank in importance until the English branch of the League was finally abolished.

The successful foreign companies, in course of time, began to decline; but Englishmen, having noted how prosperous an affair trading might become, were eager to imitate them, and thus English companies came into existence.

2. THE "STAPLE" AND THE MERCHANT ADVENTURERS' COMPANY

One of the earliest of English trading associations, engaged in foreign commerce, was known as the "Brotherhood of St. Thomas à Becket of Canterbury," which existed as early as the middle of the thirteenth century. From it originated the Merchant Adventurers' Company, which, having secured its charter in 1505, traded between Hamburg, Rotterdam, and the Netherlands. To these quarters the company carried English cloth and wool, bringing home in exchange fine linens, tapestries, hops, wines, soap, and other manufactured goods.

Under the auspices of this company an attempt was made to establish a north-east route to India; and the subsequent adventures of the expedition led to the formation of another association usually described as the Muscovy Company, Muscovy being the old name of Russia. The commander of the expedition, Sir Hugh Willoughby, sailed from England with three ships in 1553, in the hope of discovering China, or Cathay, as it was then called. His ships, however, were scattered off the Lofoden Islands by a storm, and the majority of his crew perished: but one ship, under Richard Chancellor, was fortunate enough to escape, and succeeded in reaching Archangel, where Chancellor effected a landing. After many trials and hardships Moscow was reached, and the subsequent audience with the Czar led to the opening up of English trade with Russia.

Why, it may be asked, was such a roundabout route chosen? Simply because all commerce in the Baltic Sea was then under the control of the powerful

Hanseatic League. As a consequence of this trade between Russia and England, we obtained furs, hides, and timber in return for English cloth.

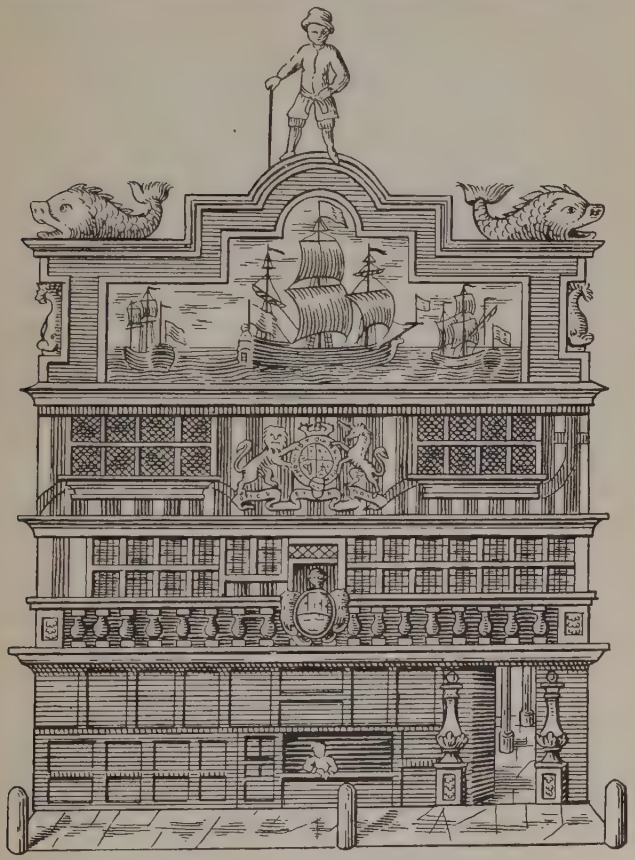
Meantime, there had sprung into existence an association, called the "Merchants of the Staple," which obtained its charter from Edward II. as early as 1313. Originally the meaning of the word "staple" was simply "market"; but later, it came to denote the town where a certain kind of commodity might be obtained. The system of confining to certain towns the sole right of trading in particular goods, which therefore became known as the staple goods of the town, was introduced by Edward I. and Edward II.; but it was Edward III. who placed it upon a sound basis by means of the "Ordinance of the Staple," passed in 1354. The statute enumerates the staple towns in England, their ports, and the towns to which certain goods must be taken to be exposed for sale.

It was considered an advantage to merchants to have the trade in a certain commodity confined to special places; and the arrangement certainly simplified the collection of government dues. For the suitable government of each of these staple towns, a mayor and other officers were appointed. One of the chief duties of the mayor was to affix the special seal to all contracts made in connection with the staple; and he was further empowered to enforce the equitable execution of all such undertakings concerning the staple goods exported from England—namely, wool, sheep-skins, and leather.

3. THE EAST INDIA COMPANY

English merchants continued to engage in foreign trade; and, towards the end of the reign of Queen

Elizabeth, a company was formed called "The Company of Merchants of London trading into the



The First India House in Leadenhall Street.

East Indies." This East India Company was a joint-stock association, the individual members of which provided the capital and shared the profits.

Their first trading venture, in February 1601, consisted of five ships carrying chiefly bullion, iron, tin, glass, cutlery, and broadcloth. From the fertile islands visited, they brought home rice, cotton, precious stones, silk, sandalwood, and spices such as pepper, cloves, and ginger.

Finding, however, that the bulk of the trade was in Dutch hands, they turned their attention to India, where, after obtaining the permission of the Mogul Emperor to trade, they set up a factory at Surat, in 1612. Gradually, other factories, guarded by forts, were established on the Hoogly, and at various other centres, such as Fort St. George in Madras, until the company was in a most flourishing condition.

For many years it continued to prosper, and, as is well known, was responsible for the extension of our power in India, which, after many struggles with the French, ultimately became British territory. Owing to the extravagance of its servants, however, the company gradually became less powerful; until, in 1833, it ceased to exist as a trading concern. It received its death-blow in 1857 during the Great Mutiny.

4. OTHER TRADING COMPANIES

The Levant Company, an association of traders which came into existence in 1581, is sometimes described as the Turkey Company, dealing as it did with Turkey, Asia Minor, and Syria. Cloths and metals were taken out and exchanged for cotton, currants, coffee, drugs, and mohair. An attempt made by this company to trade overland with India by way of Syria, Bagdad, and the Persian Gulf was, however, unsuccessful. James I., in 1605, granted

them a new charter; and the association continued to flourish for many years, even until the nineteenth century.

Trading companies were not always successful. Among the failures may be noted the Darien Company, chartered in 1695 by a Scottish Parliament to trade with the isthmus of Darien in Central America; and the many bogus companies "floated" in imitation of the famous South Sea Company which was formed in 1711 to trade with the South Seas or Pacific Ocean.

To describe, adequately, all the famous trading companies, including, in addition to those already mentioned, the Hudson Bay Company, the Chartered Company of British South Africa, the British North Borneo Company, and many others, would mean an account of the expansion of the British Empire—an undertaking which does not come within the scope or purpose of this volume.

5. GENERAL RESULTS

During the closing years of the fifteenth century, the discoveries of Columbus, Vasco da Gama, and the Cabots, all of whom were foreigners, led to the waking up of the spirit of exploration among English sailors. The work of Hawkins, Drake, and other "sea-dogs," in plundering Spanish treasure-ships and attacking Spanish settlements in America, was not only countenanced, but actively supported, by Queen Elizabeth, although such exploits were really piratical in many respects.

Later, this fighting spirit manifested itself to our advantage in the defeat of the Spanish Armada, which success was the crowning victory at the end

of a long religious struggle between England and Spain.

Traders had found the chief sea-routes already monopolised by Spain and Portugal, the latter claiming that to the east, whilst the former dominated the western seaway. This state of affairs naturally handicapped English merchants, who, therefore, set about finding another route, which, if discovered, would be their very own. Vain attempts at opening up a north-west passage to the East resulted only in the loss of valuable lives. It was this purpose, undertaken under the auspices of the Merchant Adventurers' Company, which resulted in the death of Henry Hudson, who, in 1610, was turned adrift with eight of his crew in a small boat by his mutinous sailors, in the bay which now bears his name, and left there to perish. The names of Frobisher, James, Davis, Baffin, Fox, and other brave explorers, are still kept green in our memories by the bays which have been named after them. The main object of the explorers being gain, it was thought that, in such a cold region, English cloth would meet with a more ready sale than in the warmer countries of the East; but there were few people to buy. However, their trials, difficulties, and defeats, built up a race of sailors whose efforts were destined, at a later date, to open up the New World to English adventurers.

In early Stuart times, the desire for religious liberty led to the founding of colonies in America. The Pilgrim Fathers, who sailed in the *Mayflower* in 1620, founded the Puritan settlements in the New England States; the Roman Catholics established themselves in Maryland; and William Penn, the Quaker, gave Pennsylvania to his followers.

Why did these colonies prosper when all previous attempts to establish settlements had failed? Because former attempts had been made with the sole idea of obtaining gold, not work and freedom. Only when the settlers were willing to labour patiently did their efforts prosper.

Thus we see how that the struggles for the opening up of trade routes, though not always successful, had at least produced hardy sailors whose exploits prepared the way for the founding of those colonies destined to make England the great power she is to-day.

CHAPTER III

THE GROWTH OF ENGLISH MANUFACTURES

I. THE "DOMESTIC" SYSTEM

UNDER the influence of the Mercantile System, the English had, ere the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign, ceased to export raw wool to Flanders and other countries, as had been the rule in the fourteenth century, and had begun to manufacture it into cloth in England. As the demand for English-made cloth increased, more and more people became engaged in the industry, until English wool was being manufactured not only in the towns, but also in the rural districts of England.

This spinning and weaving, however, was not carried on in large factories as is nowadays the custom, but actually in the homes of the people; and it is

because of this fact that the system is described as the "domestic" or "home" system of manufacture. Many people, in the Macclesfield district of Cheshire, are to-day engaged in their own homes weaving silk; although most of the work is done in the large silk factories. Similarly, many dressmakers, tailors, milliners, and other workers in different parts of the country, carry on trades in their own houses.

Whole families worked hard at the looms in the houses, thus earning for themselves a livelihood even when harvests were disastrous. Cottages, in which this work was carried on, were often small, insanitary, and dirty. Oftentimes, too, the younger members of the family were cruelly overworked by the avaricious father, in order to swell the output and so increase his gain.

Some masters became so keen upon extending their business, that it became necessary, in 1555, to pass the "Weavers' Act," which forbade any clothier to keep more than one loom in his house or make any profit by "letting" looms out on hire. There is, in this legislation, some indication that a factory system of manufacture was beginning to be thought of; but the time was not then ripe for its introduction.

This "domestic" system, which continued until the latter half of the eighteenth century, was responsible for the creation of a new occupation, namely, that of the *trader* or middleman. Such a person makes his living, not by "producing" anything, but by buying at the cheapest rate the product of one worker, and selling it in the dearest market: in other words, he is a man who uses money to make more money. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries traders increased rapidly in number, owing

to the lack of means of communication between towns, which made it necessary that special attention should be given to the *distribution* of commodities.

2. FOREIGN INFLUENCE

The immigration of foreign artisans, and the consequent benefit to English trade, commenced shortly

A Flemish Loom about 1500, from a contemporary print.

after the Norman Conquest, when a colony of Flemish weavers found an asylum in England, through the entreaties of the Conqueror's wife, Matilda of Flanders.

A band of Flemish weavers also received the protection of Henry I., who allowed them to settle first in Cumberland, and later in Pembrokeshire, where

they kept their looms busily engaged. During the anarchy which overtook the land in Stephen's reign, the band of settlers was scattered over various parts of the country, but especially in the south-west counties, where their skill was regarded by English workmen as a menace to their own industry. England, however, owes much to the skill of these foreign weavers.

Edward III., perceiving how weak English weaving was, introduced a number of Flemings in order to strengthen it. Many families came over, bringing with them the art of manufacturing the finer cloths, which the English soon began to imitate. This settlement led to the cessation of the export of English wool in the raw state.

In Tudor times English clothing industries were still further encouraged, Henry VII. inviting over more Flemish cloth manufacturers, who were encouraged to display as much as possible of their native skill.

But England was to profit, not only from Flemish, but also from French craftsmen ; for, during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the protection given to Protestantism led to the immigration of both Flemish and French refugees, who fled from the persecution at work in their own lands. Many of these foreigners settled in Kent and the eastern counties, especially Norfolk, where Norwich, the county town, became the chief centre of the textile industry. It is recorded that over three thousand of these immigrants, including Dutch and Walloons, were settled in Norwich alone in 1571.

Other bands of foreigners settled in various parts of the country, and set up the lace manufacture in Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Northamptonshire,

Oxfordshire, and Devon; and the arts of cutlery, pottery, hat-making, building, and clock-making in other centres. Trading in London alone there were thirty-eight prosperous Flemish merchants who subscribed £5000 towards the cost of defending the country against the Spanish Armada.

Henry IV. of France, in 1598, had caused to be passed a law known as the Edict of Nantes, by means of which French Protestants, or Huguenots, received religious toleration; but Louis XIV., in 1685, revoked the law, thus subjecting the Huguenots to terrific persecution. In the reign of Charles II. many of these refugees arrived in England, and through them the greatest impetus ever experienced was given to English manufactures. Over one hundred thousand of these unfortunate Protestants entered England; and the languishing silk trade received new life, and was securely established at Spitalfields. Among the numerous industries introduced into or revived in England by these Huguenots may be mentioned the making of glass, paper, beaver hats, sailcloth, tapestry, locks, watches, clocks, and mechanical toys.

3. NATIVE INDUSTRIES

It must not be supposed that, because Flemish and French weavers improved the English textile industry so largely, it did not previously exist. As early as the fourteenth century, a considerable quantity of the wool produced in England was manufactured at home. Hemp and linen, as well as wool, were woven into the coarser kinds of cloth suitable for sacks, windmill-sails, and dairy cloths. For many years before we have any records of them, Norfolk and Suffolk had been the chief manufacturing centres. As early as

1341, Norfolk was regarded as the wealthiest of English counties, with the exception of Middlesex; and the west of England also was then an important cloth-manufacturing centre.

To the Flemings and French, however, the English owe their skill in the manufacturing of the finer cloths, only achieved by the employment of processes previously unknown in this country. When James I. came to the English throne, the very little raw wool then exported is proof that our manufactures had increased vastly; and in 1660, it was necessary to forbid entirely the export of wool, lest the weavers at home should be deprived of the necessary raw material.

Whilst the textile industries were thus progressing, mining and metal working were also receiving attention; and in the seventeenth century, distinct improvements were made, especially in the smelting of iron by means of coal, in the establishing of the linen industry in Ulster, and in the discovery and use of rock-salt.

Hitherto, it had been customary to use charcoal for iron-smelting, especially in Sussex, the chief centre of the industry, where there were many furnaces in operation. As two loads of wood were required to produce a load of charcoal, and as two loads of the latter were consumed for each ton of iron smelted, there was grave danger of rendering English woods extinct. Coal had been used freely in the neighbourhood of the pits, but the limited means of transit rendered its general use well-nigh impossible. However, legislation enforcing the planting of trees, and limiting the number of furnaces, lest the shipbuilding industry should be hampered by shortage of timber, turned the attention of iron-founders to the use of coal for smelting

purposes. But difficulties beset them on every side, and for many years the iron trade was crippled for want of fuel.

An attempt to transfer the English manufacture of fine cloth to Ireland, because of the cheaper cost of living there, resulted in much friction between the workers in the two countries. To alleviate this jealousy, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, whose "thorough" administration in Ireland, during Stuart times, is well known, sought to establish the linen industry in Ireland upon a sound basis. Owing to the troubles of civil war, however, the industry languished so much, that, instead of spreading throughout the country as Strafford had hoped, it survived only in the north of the island, where it continues to flourish to this day.

The salt industry was vastly increased towards the end of the seventeenth century. Previously, salt had been obtained either by evaporating sea-water at towns such as Bristol and Southampton, or from the brine salt-pits of Worcestershire and Cheshire. The output being insufficient, large quantities were imported from France. This state of affairs was destined to undergo important changes; for, borings in search of coal resulted in the discovery of rock-salt, which, in spite of opposition from the brine-workers, gradually came to be used in immense quantities, and at length rendered the importing of salt unnecessary.

CHAPTER IV

THE AGRARIAN REVOLUTION OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

I. CAUSES OF THE DISTRESS

FOR many years the number of wandering poor had been gradually increasing; and, because there was no police to regulate their doings, the army "of idle, loitering persons and valiant beggars" had become, by the middle of the sixteenth century, a menace to society. They wandered from village to village, and town to town, in search of alms; and they took, openly or secretly, whatever was denied them.

Various reasons may be assigned for this state of affairs. In the first place, the reckless extravagance of Henry VIII., who speedily dissipated the enormous wealth left by his thrifty father, was responsible for the unscrupulous measures adopted for obtaining further supplies.

Increased taxation yielded something, but the wealthy monasteries were regarded by the king with envious eyes, until at last he determined to make them his prey. During the Reformation, the religious "atmosphere" was in an unsettled condition; and the king knew full well that, if he did plunder the monasteries, he would have the sympathy of the Protestant section of his subjects. He was, therefore, encouraged to proceed with his scheme.

Tyrants can readily invent excuses for their projects; and so Henry VIII. decided that, as the monasteries

were not fulfilling their proper functions, they were not entitled to continue to exist. In 1536, all religious houses whose incomes were below £200 a year were suppressed—the dissolution of larger ones following in 1539. The *annual* income resulting from this confiscation amounted to about £160,000, that is, nearly three millions of our money to-day. It is true that from the spoils a few bishoprics and schools were founded; but the bulk of this immense sum was squandered on the dazzling splendour of the king and his courtiers.

Costume of the Earl of Surrey, *temp.* Henry VIII.

The wealth of hospitals was also seized by this grasping monarch, as was the property of the gilds, which were rapidly falling into decay, and whose members no longer depended, as they had formerly done, upon the power of their organisations to limit competition. This spoliation, however, was not completely carried out during the reign of Henry VIII., but by Somerset, Edward VI.'s guardian, who was careful not to rouse the anger of the London associations, which were still powerful.

How did these acts of spoliation affect the people generally? The monks, friars, and nuns, who were thus turned out of their homes, probably numbered

about eight thousand ; whilst upon them had depended for employment at least ten times that number. All these people had to seek a new means of livelihood ; and, when we remember that many of the monks had been content to continue the old-fashioned method of farming, instead of the newer system of sheep-rearing, it will be easy to understand how distress increased. Charity, too, was a marked feature of the religious houses as well as of the gilds ; and, when these institutions ceased to exist, the poor, thus deprived of alms, went to swell the increasing army of the destitute.

Another reason for the distress was to be found in the great extension of sheep-farming ; for it is important to bear in mind that only a small part of the country had been enclosed before the beginning of the sixteenth century. Some landowners are said to have pulled down whole villages, with the exception of the church, in order to provide larger sheep-runs ; and many of these people, thus robbed of homes, joined the vast army of vagrants.

But perhaps the most potent cause of trouble and distress was the issuing of base coin by Henry VIII. This method of extorting money from his subjects was undertaken because he dared not ask Parliament to replenish his empty coffers. Time after time, this king, by adding alloy or base metal to the coins of the realm, reduced their *real* value, whilst making them retain their usual *nominal* value. The practice was continued by his son Edward VI. until, in 1551, there was only the same amount of precious metal in seven of the so-called shillings as, in the year 1527, there had been in one. In this way, kings made profit at the expense of their subjects.

By and by, however, these " bad shillings " were

regarded with suspicion by the public, until at last they were accepted with great reluctance, and only then as being equivalent in value to a groat. Thus, more shillings had to be paid, than previously, to settle a debt; and in this way prices rose: for commodities formerly costing one shilling were now only purchasable for seven shillings. But, if prices rise whilst wages continue as before, distress must ensue; and such was the case. It has been estimated that prices increased two and a half times whilst wages only rose to one and a half times their former value.

During the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Mary, this debased coinage continued; and the consequent misery at length manifested itself in various insurrections. As these risings embraced both the Protestant and Roman Catholic sections of the community, it is evident that the tyrannical government had provoked the deepest possible resentment in the subjects of the State.

2. ATTEMPTED REMEDIES BY HENRY VIII. AND HIS SUCCESSOR

Before the dissolution of the monasteries and the decay of the gilds, charity was, as we have seen, meted out by these bodies to the needy; but, after their extinction, it became necessary to legislate for the relief of pauperism. At first, harsh laws were made with the hope of reducing the number of beggars. Only those who were really "lame, crippled, infirm, or suffering from some terrible disease such as leprosy," were to be allowed to seek alms. For the relief of such people collections were also made in churches.

"Sturdy beggars," that is, those strong enough

to earn a livelihood, were to be dealt with severely, if found begging. For the first offence, whipping was the punishment; whilst for subsequent lapses, slitting of the ears and other forms of mutilation were inflicted. Any further breach of the law might also be punishable by hanging. Licences to beg were issued to those deemed worthy of the "privilege," but the number of persons punished for begging without permission was very great, many even being put to death, and

Prisoners in the Stocks.

the flogging of vagrants continued up to the nineteenth century.

Still more repressive measures to put down vagrancy were adopted in the reign of Edward VI., an Act actually being passed which aimed at reducing to slavery all destitute poor, after they had first suffered the punishment of branding. Fortunately, this brutal law was shortly afterwards repealed, and the frequent use of the stocks and pillory, in addition to flogging, became the usual form of punishment.

A pillory was a board having three holes through which the head and hands of the offender were thrust. There he remained, exposed to the jeers and ridicule of the bystanders; the object of such legislation being to shame the delinquents. Such punishment was meted out, not only to beggars, but to thieves, drunkards, and brawlers.

3. THE POOR LAW OF ELIZABETH

When Queen Elizabeth succeeded to the throne, she found the national purse empty, and the country still swarming with beggars, in spite of the voluntary gifts instituted for their relief. It soon became evident that pauperism was a permanent evil with which it was the duty of the State to deal.

The Act of 1563, which had rendered refusal to contribute to the relief of the poor a punishable offence, was amended time after time. In 1576, an Act "For Setting the Poor on Work" empowered collectors to provide work for the able unemployed, by distributing the raw material, such as wool, hemp, and flax, in order that profitable employment might ensue.

The provision of poor-relief was ceasing to be an act of Christian charity, and was becoming a matter for State regulation. In 1601, therefore, the celebrated Poor Law Act of Elizabeth was passed, which provided for the levying of a compulsory poor-rate in every parish for the relief of pauperism. Relief was to be administered to the needy, incapable of earning a living; and able-bodied persons were to be provided with work. The punishment of idlers, and the careful training of poor children in some craft, were also among the provisions of this important measure, which

further provided that, if any parish was not sufficiently wealthy to maintain its own poor, the remainder of the "hundred" should assist.

Employers found that, by keeping wages as low as possible, labourers could be made to seek poor-relief; and thus the whole parish would share with the employer what should have been done by him alone. This important measure continued in force till 1812, but its later workings must be described in a subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER V

IMPROVEMENTS IN AGRICULTURE

I. IN TUDOR TIMES

We have already seen that great agricultural changes were effected by the introduction of sheep-farming and the consequent enclosure of land; but it is a matter for regret that these changes did not tend to improve materially the general condition of English agriculture. No improvements worthy of notice took place before the time of Queen Elizabeth, when, mainly through the influence of foreign settlers, several changes of benefit to agriculture were brought about.

The advent of Flemish and Dutch refugees introduced into England not only textile skill, but the cultivation of crops hitherto unknown here. By them was first made known to our English cottagers that branch of kitchen-gardening which enlarged their range of food. Vegetables such as carrots, cabbages,

and celery were previously almost unknown in England; and the cultivation here was quite an innovation.

To the farmer the introduction of root-crops was indeed a great boon, for it then became possible to keep oxen throughout the winter, with results of great benefit to the health of the people, who were no longer compelled to subsist almost entirely on salt meats. Formerly, it had been necessary to give the land a year's rest periodically; but, when it was discovered that all crops do not take the same kind of nourishment from the ground, it became customary to utilise the "fallow" land for the growth of roots, instead of leaving it bare each third year as had previously been the custom.

Hops were also introduced by the Flemings; and, although at first their cultivation was restricted, they continued to thrive so well before the end of Elizabeth's reign, that the hop gardens of Kent had already become famous. Ever since that time, hops have continued to play an important part in the brewing industry, which improved so considerably during Tudor times, that beer then became the national beverage.

Progress was also made in the *mode* of cultivation, owing to the greater amount of capital expended on the land, by means of which the improved breed of horses and cattle, together with the use of more expensive manures, became possible, to the great improvement of agriculture generally.

2. IN STUART TIMES

During the latter part of the sixteenth century root crops had been mostly cultivated in gardens; but, during the following century, they became a very im-

portant feature of agriculture in general. So important did farming become, that it formed a suitable subject for the writing of treatises.

The draining of land began, at this time, to receive special attention. It was discovered that the wet, heavy ground, which was to be found in many parts of England, made it impossible for the roots of plants to obtain the requisite amount of air. Cattle and sheep also suffered from foot-rot, if turned out on such wet land. Thus, farmers were suffering considerable loss, both with regard to animals and plants. How was this to be remedied? Experiments proved that when the land was drained it was better both for plants and cattle; for then it became lighter in weight, warmer, easier to work, and not so liable to the attacks of noxious insects which appeared to thrive in damp ground. Crops produced in the drier soil were also more nourishing for cattle, whose condition consequently improved rapidly.

The district receiving most attention in this way was that of the Fens, which embraces the land around the Wash, including large portions of Lincoln, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northants, Norfolk, and Suffolk. Attempts had been made in the fifteenth century to improve this vast swamp, but with little success. In 1634, however, the Earl of Bedford set on foot a scheme which resulted, in 1649, in the reclaiming of no less an area than 95,000 acres, a tract of immense advantage to the farmer since.

Large sums were also expended in improving the soil by the process known as "marling," which consists in the addition of a mixture of chalk and clay to sandy soils, whilst sand is added to the heavier soils to make them lighter. These improvements led to

increased crops of various kinds, especially corn, of which sufficient was produced for the entire population of the country. The price of corn, however, varied considerably from year to year, though on the whole it was steadily rising; and during the seventeenth century the average price was 41s. per quarter.

CHAPTER VI

SOCIAL LIFE IN TUDOR TIMES

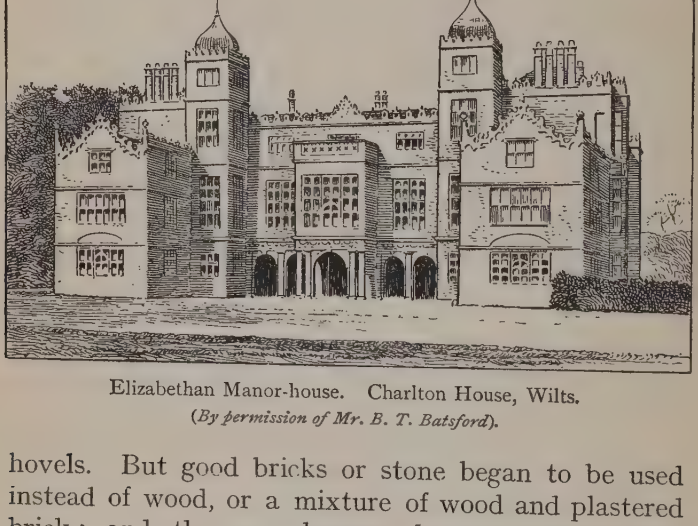
I. DWELLINGS

THE houses of the English in the time of the Tudors were very different from what they are to-day; but the increase in the trade and manufactures of the country led to an improvement in the condition of the people. As law and order became more established, the houses of the nobility and higher classes were no longer fortified castles, but convenient and comfortable places of abode. The castle was transformed into the palace or "hall" of the noble, or into the manor-house of the squire. Instead of a wet ditch surrounding the house, there was a lawn or shrubbery; gardens and bowling-greens were laid out around the mansion with broad terraces and winding walks, while a long avenue of trees led up to the front. Loopholes had given place to large windows filled with glass; walls were adorned with paintings or worked hangings; and floors were covered with carpets, instead of rushes.

The manor-house was generally a plain building

with two projecting wings, and a porch in the middle—this having been suggested, it is said, by the shape of the letter E, the first letter of Elizabeth's name.

Town houses were still built of wood, the fronts of which were carved and ornamented, and the upper storeys projecting. The houses of the poorer classes were in many cases nothing but mean, wretched



Elizabethan Manor-house. Charlton House, Wilts.
(*By permission of Mr. B. T. Batsford*).

hovels. But good bricks or stone began to be used instead of wood, or a mixture of wood and plastered brick; and the new houses that were built were larger and better, containing, as they did, many things for comfort which had hitherto only been found in the houses of the wealthy.

Chimneys were now generally introduced, and the smoke was no longer allowed to escape through a hole in the roof.

2. STYLE OF LIVING

Great changes took place in the style of living, both of rich and poor, the former having rich beds of down, covered with woollen blankets and sheets of fine linen; the latter having straw pallets or rough mats, with a round log of wood for a pillow, or perhaps a bag filled with chaff. Pillows were formerly despised as only fit for women and invalids.

The usual hours for meals with the upper classes were eight o'clock for breakfast, twelve for dinner, and six for supper, though only two meals a day were taken by many people. Dinner was the principal meal; and during Elizabethan times vegetables, herbs, fruits, and roots, which had for some time fallen into disuse, began to be served again at this meal. Among such may be mentioned melons, gourds, cucumbers, parsnips, pumpkins, carrots, turnips, and marrows. The potato and tobacco plants also made their appearance in England during this period, being introduced from America, as is well known, by Sir Walter Raleigh. Food thus became more wholesome through the introduction of root crops, and the constant use of salt meats was no longer a necessity.

Meats were much eaten—beef, mutton, veal, lamb, kid, pork, coney, capon, venison, wild-fowl, and fish in great variety.

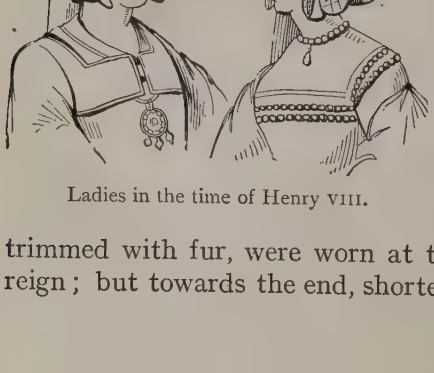
In addition, sweets were in great demand at dinners, their use being so enormous that foreign merchants supplying currants and raisins wondered how the English could use so many unless for feeding pigs. Ladies of the Court even sent, as New Year's gifts, comfits and confections of their own making to Queen Elizabeth.

Food was often served in silver dishes; but fingers were still used in the place of forks. Wine, ale, and beer were the chief beverages; and barley or rye bread was still eaten by the poorer classes.

Elizabeth delighted in making frequent journeys or "progresses" through her dominions, and was entertained on her way at the houses of the nobles and men of wealth, who were proud to receive their Queen under their roofs. Such an honour, however, cost the entertainer immense sums of money. She visited her favourite statesman, Lord Burghley, twelve times, and each visit cost him between two and three thousand pounds; but the most famous of her visits was to Kenilworth Castle in Warwickshire, the seat of the Earl of Leicester. This visit is fully described by Sir Walter Scott in his *Kenilworth*.

3. DRESS

Increased trade and wealth under the Tudors led to greater luxury and extravagance, which manifested itself, particularly in Elizabeth's reign, in extremes of fashion.



Ladies in the time of Henry VIII.

Feminine costume, during Henry VIII.'s time, did not vary much, and was very becoming. Long, close-fitting garments, often trimmed with fur, were worn at the beginning of the reign; but towards the end, shorter dresses, frequently

open at the neck, became fashionable. With the exception of a brooch to clasp mantle or collar, no jewellery was worn.

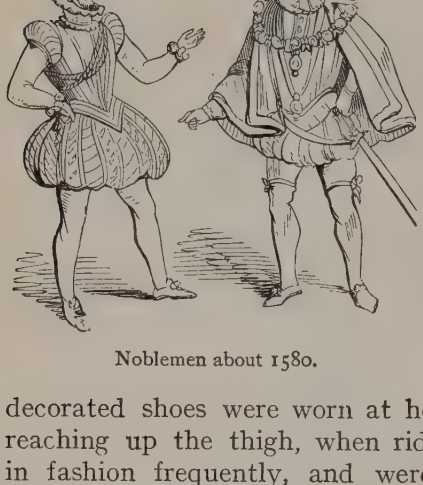
During Elizabeth's reign, all restraint with regard to dress disappeared—the costumes both of men and women becoming so extravagant that the English were a laughing-stock to foreign nations. The Queen herself was proud of her reddish-gold-coloured hair, which apparently curled naturally; and when, later in life, her locks became thinner, she wore a wig dyed to resemble the hair of her youth. Curling-tongs and false hair then became fashionable, and wire was used to make the hair stand out as much as possible.

A Lady and a Countrywoman about 1580.

Perhaps the most notable feature of the reign, with regard to costume, was the ruff, which was of Spanish origin. Beginning as a loose cambric collar, it gradually became so large that wires were necessary to hold it out from the neck, until the art of starching was introduced from Flanders. Starch was called "devil's liquor" by the Puritans. The Queen being pale, fair, long-waisted, and narrow of chest, ladies of fashion desired to be likewise; and there was, consequently, much pinching and girding to bring about the desired effect. To assist this desire, the long-

peaked stomacher, that is, a kind of bodice, became fashionable; and even the doublets of men were padded and peaked in front to give them a long-waisted appearance.

Ladies also wore huge farthingales, that is, great hooped petticoats, which counterbalanced, to some extent, the enormous ruffs of plaited linen. Large velvet hats, chains of gold, bejewelled hair, and silk stockings, completed the outfit of the wealthier classes; and it was fittingly said by satirists of the day, that "women were the smallest parts of themselves," a ship being sooner rigged than a woman.



Noblemen about 1580.

A gentleman's dress consisted of gaily-coloured silk or satin doublet, trunk hose, that is, breeches, and stockings. Gaily-decorated shoes were worn at home, and long boots reaching up the thigh, when riding. Hats changed in fashion frequently, and were made of felt, as well as of wool, silk, and velvet. They were often decorated with feathers, bands of gold and silver lace, or jewels. Gorgeous cloaks thrown carelessly over the shoulders completed their outfit.

The dress of the lower orders changed little, though the poorer women made some attempt to imitate the styles adopted by the wealthier classes.

4. SPORTS AND PASTIMES

Music, dancing, and games of various kinds, were the chief home amusements of the time of the Tudors. Outdoor games were numerous, and included football, hockey, tennis, quarterstaff, and singlestick. Every village had its archery butts, at which all able-bodied men were required to appear on Sundays in order to employ their leisure hours as valiant Englishmen should do. In Elizabeth's days, however, archery, as a serious business, was being superseded by the gun and other formidable weapons, the use of which, along with sword and lance exercises, was encouraged.

Fishing, shooting, and hunting were common, whilst cruel and degrading sports such as bear-baiting, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting were favourite amusements even with the most refined people. Country people indulged freely in feasting and rejoicing, especially at such times as Christmas, New Year's Day, Plough Monday, Candlemas, Shrovetide, May Day, Easter, Whitsuntide, Martinmas, and Seedcake Day, the last named marking the end of wheat-sowing in October. At such times, hurling, wrestling, coits, dancing, mumming, and pantomimic shows were much in vogue.

Until the close of Elizabeth's reign, the tournament continued to attract the attention of crowds of people, when knights in full armour rode in the tilt-yard; but above all, this was the age of pageants and masques, which were accompanied with the greatest splendour, as readers of Sir Walter Scott's *Kenilworth* well know.

In town life, the theatre formed the attraction for the multitude; and the renown of English plays and players spread throughout Europe. Theatres,

at that time, however, were very rough, the scenery and other stage appliances being of the rudest kind. The better class of spectators sat in two rows, on stools, on each side of the rush-strewn stage, whilst the lower orders or "groundlings" sat in what was afterwards known as the pit, where there was no shelter overhead to protect them from wind and rain. Noise

The Globe Theatre, Southwark.

and laughter were common, hawkers selling nuts, apples, and other trifles. Under such conditions many of Shakespeare's plays were witnessed by his contemporaries, and there, too, might often be seen the acting of the "immortal Will" himself.

5. LEARNING AND LITERATURE

Learning, in the sixteenth century, was no longer confined to professed scholars, but was at the command

of all classes. All the Tudor sovereigns, except the first, were eminent for scholarship. Elizabeth knew well Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian. She could also read Greek, the study of which had been introduced into England in Henry VII.'s reign; and the number of learned ladies and gentlemen was ever increasing.

Ladies of rank were also instructed in music, dancing, needlework, and other domestic accomplishments. This was also a time distinguished for the foundation of schools and colleges. Sixteen colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and five great public schools, were founded in England. The Scottish Universities of Edinburgh and Aberdeen, as well as Trinity College, Dublin, belong to this period.

In the reign of Elizabeth, English literature was remarkable for its splendour and originality. There were many able writers both in prose and poetry. Amongst the poets, by far the greatest in genius were Edmund Spenser and William Shakespeare. Spenser's great work was the *Faerie Queene*, which he dedicated to Queen Elizabeth. The harmony of his verse is exquisite. William Shakespeare, the greatest poet the world has ever produced, stands unrivalled as a dramatist. Besides sonnets and two poetical tales, he is the author of thirty-seven plays—tragedies, comedies, and historical dramas. For his knowledge of human character, his description of scenes, his imagination and power of words, he has no equal.

Other dramatists were Ben Jonson, Christopher Marlowe, Francis Beaumont, John Fletcher, and Philip Massinger. Sir Philip Sidney, the author of *Arcadia*, also wrote lyrical verses, and Sir Walter Raleigh his *History of the World*—a book much admired for learning and ability.

Great, however, as was the Elizabethan age, in many respects it displayed a lack of refinement. Pleasure was the dominating desire; and, in order to gain this end, coarseness became too evident. Even the Queen herself indulged in coarse jests, and her manner was at times unbecoming. "She spat at a courtier whose coat offended her taste, she boxed the ears of another, she tickled the back of Leicester's neck when he knelt to receive his earldom, and uttered every sharp, amusing word that rose to her lips."[1]

CHAPTER VII

SOCIAL LIFE IN STUART TIMES

I. HOUSES AND ARCHITECTURE

A GREAT change in the manner of building houses had taken place in Tudor times, and the country houses of gentlemen began to be built for comfort and beauty instead of defence. Bacon, in his *Essays*, describes what he considers to be the perfection of a "princely palace," which is on a very large scale. He bids the builder seek for a healthy neighbourhood, and to be careful to make the rooms of the house spacious. He advises a winter and a summer parlour, and under these rooms a "fair and large cellar sunk underground." In the front is to be a "fair court" and towers, and he is particular that the rooms shall have both morning and afternoon sun. People began to realise how valuable to health light is, and the use of large glass

[1] Traill's *Social England*, vol. iii.

window-panes made a wonderful difference to the interior of the houses.

In London, until after the Fire, houses were built with the upper storeys projecting over the shops below; and in the different towns of England, the buildings were much the same. Old towns, notably Chester, still possess houses of this kind. After the Fire the style changed, and care was taken to make dwellings more healthy and convenient.

Paul Pinder's House.

The Elizabethan houses, and those of the early days of James I., were both beautiful and comfortable; but, as time went on, architects began to build in the Italian style, with rows of pillars and round arches, and with many decorations which looked, as they thought, very grand and imposing. Inigo Jones built the Banqueting Hall at Whitehall (part of a royal palace), and in several parts of England specimens of his work can still be seen. Sir Christopher Wren was the chief architect after the Fire. He built

the new St. Paul's Cathedral, Greenwich Hospital, and many churches. St. Paul's took thirty-five years to build. Temple Bar was also built by him; it remained in London until 1878, when it was taken down, and it has since been rebuilt at Theobald's Park, Herts. The great palace of Blenheim, in Oxfordshire, was built by Vanbrugh.

At the end of Anne's reign, architecture was becoming more commonplace, and the ordinary dwelling-houses built in the eighteenth century were distinguished more by their substantial comfort and internal decoration than by picturesque exteriors.

Furniture in the better houses was useful, and in some cases beautiful also. Samuel Pepys, who was secretary to the Admiralty in the reigns of Charles II. and James II., kept a famous diary from which we are able to learn much about the mode of life of his time. He tells us that on 19th October 1660, his "dining-room was finished with green serge hanging and gilt leather," "very handsome." One day when Pepys went to see the Duke of York, he was shown "two very fine chests covered with gold and Indian varnish," given to the Duke by the "East Indy Company of Holland."

John Evelyn, another gentleman whose diary has been preserved, writes: "I went to visit Mr. Pepys at Clapham, where he has a very noble and wonderfully well-furnished house, especially with India and Chinese curiosities. The offices and gardens well accommodated for pleasure and refinement."

Another house, belonging to Mr. Povy, in Lincoln's Inn, is spoken of by Pepys: "With Mr. Povy home to dinner, where extraordinary cheer. And after dinner up and down to see his house. . . . His room

Temple Bar and Fleet Street in 1726. From an Illustration to Butler's *Hudibras* by Hogarth.

floored above with woods of several colours, like, but above, the best cabinet-work I ever saw; his grotto and vault, with his bottles of wine, and a well therein

The Guildhall. [*Drawn by T. R. Way.*

to keep them cool; his furniture of all sorts; his bath at the top of the house, good pictures, and his manner of eating and drinking do surpass all that ever I did see of one man in all my life."

2. STYLE OF LIVING

The upper classes, especially in London, lived in great magnificence. Country gentry-people seldom went from home, spending their time in sports, and in going to the markets near at hand. They drank beer as a rule, claret and Canary wines being only for the very rich. The country ladies looked after their households, baked bread and pastry, brewed wines, and in the evening sewed or spun. They were not well educated, and many of them wrote and spelled very badly.

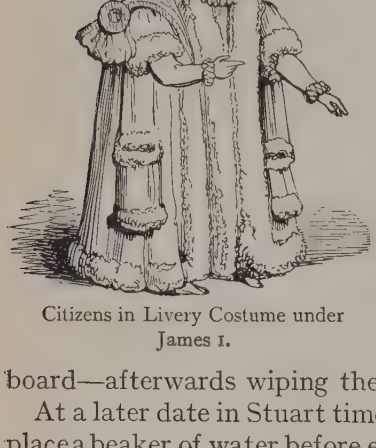
The country clergy were poorer than the country squires; they had few books, and could not do much towards improving their minds or the minds of their parishioners. There were, though, some clergymen of learning and piety who wrote well, and did what they could for others. One of the best of these, living in the troubled times of the Great Civil War, was George Herbert, who was rector of the small hamlet of Bemerton, near Salisbury. The tiny church in which he ministered may still be seen by any visitors to Salisbury who care to traverse the short distance, of about two miles, which separates the village from the city. George Herbert was also a poet, and much of his verse is very quaint and beautiful. He wrote—

> "Teach me, my God and King,
> In all things Thee to see,
> And what I do in any thing,
> To do it as for Thee."

The trading classes gained influence steadily. London merchants lived in the city, and were a very powerful body of men. Their way of living was comfortable, and their houses well furnished.

Pepys often speaks about the dinners he had.

"Very merry we were with our pasty, very well baked; and a good dish of roasted chickens; pease, lobsters, strawberries." In another place he describes a sauce of which the Duke of York was fond: "made of some parsley and a dry toast, beat in a mortar together with vinegar, salt, and a little pepper; he eats it with flesh, or fowl, or fish." Once at a Lord Mayor's dinner he was vexed because they had no napkins nor change of trenchers, and drank out of earthen pitchers, and wooden dishes.



Citizens in Livery Costume under James I.

Charles II. was said to introduce a "politer way of living," but forks were seldom used even in his time, a basin of water being provided in which diners could dip their fingers. Only one knife was given to each diner, even at royal feasts, the guests being expected to wash them in a basin of water placed upon the sideboard—afterwards wiping them on the napkins.

At a later date in Stuart times it became customary to place a beaker of water before each person, into which the napkin might be dipped in order to cleanse both knife and fork, the latter of which had just been introduced.

3. COFFEE-HOUSES

Warm drinks, such as chocolate, coffee, and tea, were first used in England during the Stuart period. Chocolate was first introduced in the time of the

Commonwealth, and was at first used only as a medicine. Then came coffee, which was drunk by people of fashion instead of only beer and wine. Tea followed later, and was at first so expensive as to be within the reach of the very wealthy only, being about sixty shillings a pound.

The *Mercurius Politicus* of 1658 thus describes it :—

"That excellent, and by all physitians approved, China Drink, called by the Chineans Teha, by other nations Tay, *alias* Tee, is sold at the Sultaness Head, a cophee-house in Sweeting's Rents, by the Royal Exchange, London."

The first coffee-house was opened by a Greek, in Cornhill, in the year 1652 ; and the warm beverages introduced soon brought about great changes in the habits of the people. Pepys first tasted tea in 1660 : "I did send for a cup of tea (a China drink) of which I never had drank before," he writes. In 1667, he speaks of it again : "Home, and there find my wife making of tea." But it was not till very much later that tea came into general use.

By degrees coffee-houses, in which it had become customary for men to meet to drink coffee and talk together, assumed political importance. Matters of State were there discussed by thoughtful men, who made it a practice to go to the coffee-houses to say what they thought of Government affairs, and to hear what their friends thought also. All sorts of news was talked of, too, and literary men, such as Dryden and Addison, were listened to with pleasure and attention.

4. ROADS AND TRAVELLING

The passing of the first Highway Act in 1555, rendering labour for the repairing of roads com-

pulsory, led to great improvements, and prepared the way for the introduction of coaches. These made their appearance in the days of Elizabeth, who was the first English sovereign to use a coach; but, even in her days, coaches were not common, and the Queen, being a splendid horsewoman, preferred the less dangerous means of locomotion, namely, riding.

In the early part of the seventeenth century, stage-coaches, carrying both passengers and merchandise, came into existence; but as the roads were little better than broad ditches, horseback continued to be the favourite mode of travel. Towards the end of the century, however, stage-coaching became common; although, as the art of road-making was unknown, travel was both difficult and dangerous. Coaches were heavily built, without springs, so that it was no pleasure to take long journeys in them; and it was no uncommon occurrence, in wet weather, for the wheels to sink axle-deep into a quagmire, from which the efforts of six or eight horses frequently failed to drag it.

By the time of the Restoration, improvements so great had been effected that it was possible to travel, in good weather, from London to York or Exeter in four days for £2.

"Flying-coaches," which could cover between forty and fifty miles a day, made their appearance about 1677, when it became possible to make the journey from London to Oxford in twelve hours. Spring-carriages of wicker with glass windows, and two-wheeled hooded vehicles, were also among the novelties of this time.

Numerous attendants, in addition to the coachman

and postilions, were needed, not only to guard the coach and its occupants from the attacks of highwaymen, but also to assist in righting the vehicle when it overturned or stuck in a bog. Bundles of ropes, and long poles, were carried for this purpose by footmen, who accompanied the

An Old Innyard. The Oxford Arms, Warwick Lane, London.

coach. Survivals of these rope-bundles are to be seen to-day upon many liveries of men-servants. All travellers went fully armed with pistol, blunderbuss, or sword, for Claude Duval and other "gentlemen of the road" were frequently hovering about in readiness to rob, and perhaps murder, the luckless traveller.

Inns were numerous along the road; and, though

far below the modern standard of comfort, they were generally praised by foreign travellers in the seventeenth century. Sword and purse, however, were laid beside the pillow in readiness for any emergency. Samuel

A Street in Bermondsey, Seventeenth Century.

Pepys informs us that when he slept at the George Inn, Salisbury, he was provided with a silk bed, and "very good diet, but very dear." He was, however, not always so fortunate.

London, even in the time of Charles II., was in a dirty, unhealthy state. Rubbish was thrown into the

centre of Lincoln's Inn Fields; and even in some of the best streets the gutters streamed with dirty water, so that people on foot were often splashed with the mud through which carts and carriages had to drive. For this reason the wealthier classes rarely walked abroad in town; hence either riding or rowing was the common means of transit. Watermen were so numerous, even in Elizabeth's time, that the Thames was lined with landing-places; it being estimated that two hundred wherries and three thousand poor men were engaged in boating. This mode of transit was succeeded in Stuart days by the sedan chair and hackney-coach, the latter of which became so common in London by the end of the seventeenth century, that eight hundred of them were licensed by the year 1700.

At the beginning of the reign of Charles II. the streets of London were not lighted at all, and those persons who ventured out after dark were often robbed. Young noblemen and "gentlemen" thought it a fine thing to insult and knock down people in the dark streets. Before the end of the reign this dangerous state of things was improved. Lanterns were hung on the doors of houses—one lantern to every ten houses was thought to be very good lighting,—and these were only used in winter, from six o'clock till midnight.

Houses were not numbered, but shops had signs, such as the Saracen's Head, the Star, the Golden Key.

The Fire, which had destroyed thousands of houses and ninety churches, led to wider streets and better buildings; and, though London streets were still not very clean, the city was much more healthy after 1666.

5. DRESS

In the reign of James I. the ruffs, which were so fashionable in Elizabeth's time, were still worn round the neck; but, in the time of Charles I., deep embroidered collars began to take their place.

Cavaliers were dressed in rich cloaks with deep collars over them, large, broad-brimmed hats of beaver with long feathers, silken doublets, and high boots; their hair was long and flowing, and the whole dress of bright and pleasing colours.

Puritan Costume about 1650.

The Puritans, as the name Roundhead shows, did not approve of this graceful dress; but, for the most part, wore their hair close cropped—though many prominent men on the Puritan side wore their hair long. A dark cloak, a plain linen collar, and a high steeple-crowned hat completed their costume.

After the Restoration, people were very glad to wear more finery. Ladies and gentlemen of the Court were magnificently dressed. Pepys describes some dresses at a Court ball given on the Queen's birthday; one of the ladies wore "black and white lace, and her head and shoulders dressed with diamonds, and the like many great ladies more (only the Queen none); and

the King (Charles II.) in his rich vest of some rich silk and silver trimming, as the Duke of York and all the dancers were, some cloth of silver, and others of other sorts, exceeding rich."

Charles II. introduced the fashion of perukes, long curling wigs which covered the shoulders. Pepys followed the fashion, and bought himself two, one costing £3, the other £2. Even ladies wore them; Mrs. Pepys had "a pair of peruques of hair, as the fashion now is for ladies to wear."

Dress became more and more extravagant, and the King declared that he must "teach the nobility thrift" by wearing plainer clothes himself. He chose a long, close vest of black cloth or velvet, pinked with white satin, and a loose coat over it.

A Nobleman and his Servant at the Restoration.

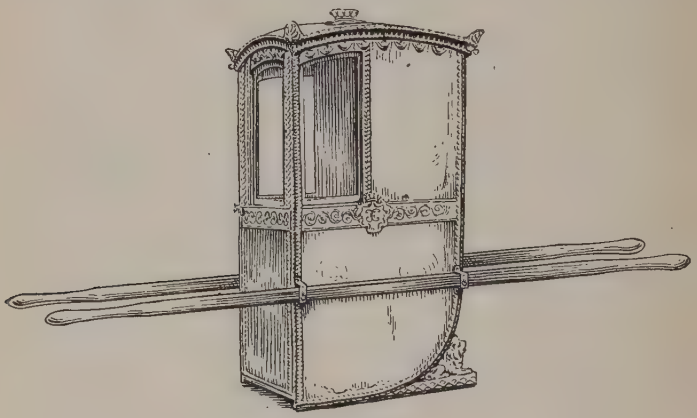
Ladies wore their hair curled, and looped up with jewels or ribbons, their dresses were of silk or satin, brocaded with gold and silver, their skirts and sleeves full. Shoe-buckles were first worn in Charles II.'s reign, and ladies began to put black patches on their faces. This fashion lasted till the reign of Anne, when we are told that the Tory ladies wore patches on one side of the face, the Whig ladies on the other.

The dress of poorer persons was much the same in

style as the Court dress, but made of serge or cloth. Women wore hoods when they went out of doors.

6. AMUSEMENTS

In the country, dancing, archery, leaping, the setting up of Maypoles on May Day, and hockey were the chief amusements. Young people danced on the village green, and on May Day the Maypole was set up there,



A Sedan Chair.

and the prettiest girl in the village was chosen as queen. Tennis was a favourite game of the Stuarts, James I. recommending it to his son. Charles II. liked it, and had a particular dress made to play in at Whitehall, where there were both tennis courts and bowling alleys.

Another fashionable game was "Pall-mall," or "Pell-mell," which was played in St. James's Park by Charles II. and his courtiers, and by many other people. It "is a game wherein a round box ball is struck with a mallet through a high arch of iron, which

he that can do at the fewest blows, or at the number agreed upon, wins."

James I. in *The Book of Sports* declared some games to be lawful on Sundays, and others unlawful; but that those who played games on a Sunday must also go to church. Charles I. had this Declaration read in all the churches in 1633. It made the Puritans very angry, as they disapproved of most games, and thought it exceedingly wrong to play at anything on Sunday. The Long Parliament ordered all copies of the Declaration to be burnt.

The game laws were strict, and only persons having a certain income or rank might have guns, bows, or sporting dogs. Izaak Walton wrote a book, called *The Compleat Angler*, in praise of fishing, which remains one of the most popular of English classics.

The bear-gardens in London were generally full of people, and bear-baiting and cock-fighting were thought to be very amusing. John Evelyn in 1670 wrote: "I went with some friends to the Bear Garden, where was cock-fighting, dog-fighting, beare and bull baiting, it being a famous day for all these butcherly sports, or rather barbarous cruelties."

During the Protectorate the theatres were closed. The Puritans hated the stage, believing it to do a great deal of harm. When Charles II. came back, the theatres were opened again, and people flocked to them. Actresses, among whom was the notorious Nell Gwynn, came on the stage after the Restoration, and scenery began to be used. Before that time women's parts were played by boys.

For many years, plays of a bad sort were acted, and what the Puritans thought of the stage was true to a considerable extent. A new theatre was built in

Covent Garden, London, in 1662, two years after the Restoration. Pepys records that he went to see "*The Tempest*, an old play of Shakespeare's, acted." He did not think very highly of it, saying that it had "no great wit, but yet good above ordinary plays."

People did not at that time appreciate Shakespeare; their taste was not pure, and though some of the plays acted were gay and witty, they were, many of them, harmful. By the beginning of Anne's reign men's feelings had changed, and the state of the stage was altered.

7. SCIENCE, LITERATURE, ETC.

In 1660 the Royal Society was founded. Groups of friends had been in the habit of meeting in London and Oxford, to talk about astronomy, chemistry, and other branches of science, and out of these meetings the Royal Society grew. Charles II. and his brother James were members of it, and the list in which their signatures stand first is still preserved. Christopher Wren was President of it at one time, Isaac Newton at another. It was to this Society that Newton explained his wonderful discoveries. The Society has gone on ever since 1660, and men learned in science belong to it.

Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood early in the reign of Charles I.

Among the giants in literature of the Stuart age may be mentioned John Milton, John Dryden, Robert Herrick, Andrew Marvell, Samuel Butler, Jeremy Taylor, John Bunyan, John Locke, Alexander Pope, Dean Swift, and Daniel Defoe. In the reign of Anne, the Essays of Addison and Steele were published—at first three times a week, then daily—in *The Tatler* and *The Spectator*, the

first English periodicals. The law forbidding printing without a licence, however, made books scarce and dear. In 1641, the first newspaper appeared, called *The Weekly News*. Milton wrote much about people being allowed to state their opinions freely, feeling that it would be safer and wiser to allow them to do so. But a strict watch was kept over all printed works, and in 1662 the only printing presses allowed were at London, York, Oxford, and Cambridge. The licencers stopped all newspapers but *The London Gazette* and *The Observator*. In 1695, the Press became free, and it was, on the whole, a very good thing for the country.

Letters were delivered in the country once or twice a week, and the post-bags were carried by men on horseback. In 1635, Charles I. commanded his "Postmaster of England for foreign parts" to arrange for letters to be sent to and from Edinburgh and London. In 1710, a general Post Office for England, Scotland, and Ireland was set up under the control of a Postmaster-General.

The productions of great painters such as the Flemish Peter Paul Rubens and Van Dyck, the German Peter Lely, and others, who settled in England during this period, became famous, and the artists received royal patronage.

Henry Lawes, Henry Purcell, and other musicians also became famous in Stuart times; and John Milton himself was no mean musician, playing as he did the organ, the bass-viol, and the lute.

VI. MODERN TIMES

CHAPTER I

BANKING AND THE CREDIT SYSTEM

1. WHY THE SYSTEM AROSE

The growth of the commercial spirit in England led to the rapid increase in the number of men who were "mere traders," that is, people who gain their livelihood by buying in the cheapest market in order to sell in the dearest. Such people do not "make," that is, "produce," anything; in other words, they are what is known to the economist as "unproductive" workers, who, nevertheless, are entitled to payment for the risks they run, and for the services they render the community in general. Their chief essential is money, without which they are unable to carry on their work. But there are some traders who have more money than they can use, and there are other rich people who do not trade at all. If their superfluous wealth can be employed by those who want money and can turn it to good account, it will be to the advantage of all. Commerce can only flourish on such conditions, and hence a system of banking and "trade-credit" has become general in modern times.

A bank is a place in which people deposit their money for safe keeping and draw it out as they want it. The banker thus has a large accumulation of money in

hand, and he uses what is not immediately wanted by lending it out on interest. Sometimes banks have failed by using the money in their hands injudiciously, and have so caused widespread loss and distress to their depositors. But all the well-known banks have now such large reserves of money belonging to themselves that no one hesitates to deposit money with them.

2. HOW THE SYSTEM AROSE

For centuries, borrowing had been considered evidence of thriftlessness or misfortune; and the taking of interest, or "usury," as it was scornfully called, was at first strictly forbidden. Even when interest was sanctioned by Act of Parliament, the rate to be charged was limited, and people who accepted any remuneration for loans were regarded by the Church as unchristian for taking advantage of the necessity of others—hence the unpopularity of Jews who did receive usury.

By degrees, however, the system of lending at interest became quite common, though the law still attempted to protect the borrower against excessive rates of interest. The mutual convenience and advantage derived from the practice led to the formation of private companies prepared to pay a moderate interest for the loan of money which they in turn could lend to traders and others at a higher rate. Thus loans became the means of obtaining the control of money; and the goldsmiths in London were perhaps the first to avail themselves of the system, though even they probably at first only acted as guardians of the hoards possessed by their clients. During the Great Civil War in England, plate, money,

and other valuables were sent to the care of the goldsmiths, people being the more inclined to trust them because the company itself possessed great wealth.

That spendthrift monarch, Charles II., found the company of immense advantage, as had his father and Oliver Cromwell, though by his dishonest action he shook its stability. In 1672, he suddenly informed them that he did not intend to repay the sum of £1,300,000 he had borrowed; and even the interest was not paid until 1677, and then only at the rate of six per cent. instead of the promised rate of eight per cent.

In spite of such treatment, however, the company continued to flourish as a banking concern, their receipts actually being handed from one trader to another, much as the banknote is to-day. Traders at last commenced the practice of issuing notes to the company's officials asking them to pay a certain sum to the creditors named therein. In this way the modern cheque system originated.

William III., by his long and costly war with France, rendered it expedient for the Government to raise money, and this was done by a method unusual in those days. Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, or, as he was then described, "a commissioner of the treasury," raised a loan in January 1693, proposing to defray the interest by new duties on liquors. This loan was raised on the security, not of the king only, but of the whole nation backed by the pledge of the Government. The money was to be repaid with interest by annuities, that is by an annual sum paid only during the life of the lender, so that the debt would be gradually extinguished as the annuitants died off.

This undertaking of the Government was the beginning of the National Debt, which to-day amounts to about £700,000,000, though at the end of the great Napoleonic war it was eight hundred millions sterling. Other loans were obtained by the Government at varying rates; but, at a later period, 1751, they were all placed together in one "Consolidated" three per cent. Stock, from which the name "Consols," now applied to Government stock, originated.

3. THE BANK OF ENGLAND

For some years, a Scotchman, named William Paterson, had perseveringly put forward a scheme for the formation of a joint-stock bank which would be able to grant loans to the Government. The idea of a State Bank was not original, for the Dutch had already something of the kind, and a similar proposal had been made in the reign of Charles II.

Paterson's suggestion of raising £1,200.000 from the public, in order to lend to the Government at eight per cent., met with success at length; and the lenders were, on 27th July 1694, empowered by Act of Parliament to issue banknotes on Government security, to the extent of the loan; to receive deposits; and to lend money at interest. Thus, in 1694, the Bank of England was originated to free William of Orange from the financial embarrassment in which he was placed at the time, owing to the expense incurred in his wars.

At the present time the "stock department" of the bank is concerned in the management of the National Debt, and other State loans; the "issue department," created in 1844, is entrusted with the preparation, issue, and circulation of Bank of England notes—the

sole legal paper currency of the realm; whilst the "banking department" transacts, on a gigantic scale, the business of an ordinary bank.

In the very heart of London (the financial heart of the world), next to the Royal Exchange, and opposite the Mansion House, is now situated this famous Bank of England. Ingots or uncoined bars of pure gold to the value of £18,000,000 are kept in its cellars, and over a thousand persons are engaged in carrying on its work. The detachment of soldiers who mount guard every night, and the thick walls without windows through which it is impossible for burglars to break, make it so secure that the saying "As safe as the Bank of England" has become proverbial.

4. EFFECTS OF THE SYSTEM

The introduction of the banking and credit system made it possible for our industries and commerce to develop in an amazing manner, and it is not too much to say, that the immense changes in this direction during the last two centuries could not have been effected unless traders and manufacturers had thus been enabled to borrow and lend money with some degree of facility.

It has been made possible to engage in immense commercial transactions without the actual handling of money at all, the *value of notes* in circulation during the year 1910 alone being £29,000,000, in addition to the enormous sums represented by the use of *cheques* which are largely used both by commercial houses and private people nowadays.

Banks have not only been the means of promoting commerce; they have encouraged the development of thrifty habits on the part of the populace. The

fifteen thousand offices in connection with the Post Office Savings Bank (which began operations in 1881), together with the increase of sick clubs, trade unions, and other benefit societies, are some indication of the thrift which is so important a factor in all well-organised society.

CHAPTER II

THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

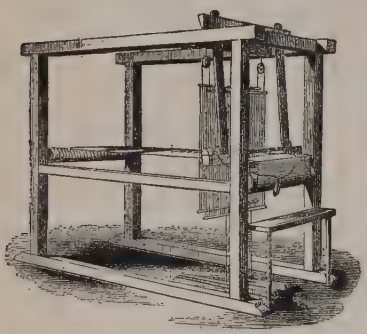
1. THE GREAT MECHANICAL INVENTIONS

BETWEEN the years 1760 and 1840, changes so great and rapid came over the industrial and social life of the English people, that the time has been well described as the period of the English Industrial Revolution. Makers of goods, before these important changes occurred, mostly laboured in their own cottages and small workshops, near which were the plots of ground they cultivated. In some cases, merchants distributed yarn or thread to the weavers assembled round a number of looms in some town or village; but, for the majority of workers, "the domestic system" of manufacture continued.

The hand-looms then used for weaving had undergone little or no change for centuries; and, although the spinning-wheels had been improved somewhat, the process continued to be slow indeed. Hence, however busily the spinners plied their wheels, the weavers were frequently kept waiting for thread. It required the work of at least six spinners to provide

the necessary material to keep one weaver fully employed.

This advantage of the loom over the wheel had been brought about by the new shuttle invented by John Kay, in 1733. Previously, it had been necessary for the weaver to pass the shuttle, carrying the weft, from side to side by hand, the alternate threads of the warp being raised by means of a lever worked by the foot of the worker. Slow, indeed, and cumbersome, was this method. But, by Kay's invention, the shuttle was mechanically propelled along a level shelf from side to side, thus reducing the weaver's labour whilst doubling his output. It also became possible to weave cloth of much greater width than the distance between the outstretched arms of the worker, which had formerly been the limit—any greater width necessitating the presence of two operatives who passed the shuttle to each other.



An Old Hand-loom.

Carlyle aptly expresses the advantages of Kay's invention :—"The shuttle drops from the fingers of the weaver, and falls into iron hands that ply it faster." Masters, of course, eagerly adopted such a device which rendered the work of the weaver quicker, whilst reducing the average cost of his output. Workers, however, did not appreciate the change, and savagely attacked the house of the inventor, even threatening his life. Sad to relate,

Kay fled to France where, a few years later, he died in poverty.

The spinning-wheel was not neglected, however, for in the same year, 1733, John Wyatt, at Sutton Coldfield, produced a machine able to spin, for the first time unaided by human fingers, a thread of cotton. There still remained the difficulty of keeping the looms supplied with thread; and so great was the need for quicker spinning, that a prize was offered by the Royal Society for a machine capable of spinning several threads at once.

One day, about the year 1770, James Hargreaves, a poor weaver of Stand-hill, near Blackburn, was waiting for a fresh supply of weft from his wife's one-thread wheel; and, as he stood watching her at her work, an accident occurred which threw her machine suddenly from the horizontal to an upright position. As both wheel and spindle continued to revolve, Hargreaves thought it would be possible to have several spindles driven by one wheel. He set to work, and soon succeeded in making a machine with eight spindles side by side, which would produce, in the same time, as much yarn as eight machines had hitherto accomplished. This machine he nicknamed the Spinning Jenny, in honour of his wife.

For some time he continued to work the machine in his own cottage, but the increased output of yarn raised the suspicions of his neighbours, who attacked his house and destroyed the new machine. Hargreaves thereupon removed to Nottingham, where, in 1770, he patented a spinning jenny of sixteen spindles. But troubles between men and masters, because of the employment of the jenny, subsequently led to grievous riots at Blackburn.

In 1771, a barber, named Richard Arkwright, in-

vented a new spinning machine which would produce yarn of greater strength than ever before made; and, as this machine, set up at Cromford in Derbyshire, was worked by the water of the river Derwent, it was known as Arkwright's "water-frame."

A few years later, in 1779, Samuel Crompton, another poor weaver, made a machine which he called "the spinning-mule," because it combined the principles both of Hargreaves and Arkwright. By means of the "mule," much *finer* yarn was spun than English hand-labour could produce; and this invention led to the manufacture of finer materials such as muslin.

By means of these improvements, spinning operations passed from hand to machine, being so much accelerated that weaving fell behind in rate of production. A machine was then required which would render weaving a quicker operation than was possible with the slow hand-worked contrivance. Many people could foresee that, unless some improvement were soon made in weaving, more yarn would be spun than English workers would be able to make up; and it was feared that the surplus yarn might be sent to the Continent to be woven.

In 1784, however, Dr. Edward Cartwright, a country clergyman in the south of England, invented, after much experimenting, a *power* loom. It was not until some years later that the machine was sufficiently improved to be widely adopted; and, as the invention was not patented by Dr. Cartwright, Parliament voted him £10,000 for the services he had thus rendered the nation.

These inventions, which were primarily connected with the cotton industry, soon came to be applied, in

a modified way, to the manufacture of woollen, worsted, and linen materials.

2. COAL-MINING AND THE METAL TRADES

This period also witnessed great improvements in the metal trades of the country; for it would have been impossible for spinning and weaving to make such progress unless machinery had been revolutionised.

Motive power for the machinery was, of course, first supplied by hand in the cottages; but, as the machines increased in size, it became impossible to propel them in this way. Cartwright's first machine-loom was so clumsy and laborious to manage that a bull was employed to work it. Horse-power was also tried, and Arkwright, as we have already seen, utilised running water to work his spinning-frame. This application of water-power accounted for the erection of spinning factories on the banks of rivers and streams, where falling water could be utilised to turn the wheels to supply the moving force.

There was shortly to follow, however, a mightier generator of mechanical power, for James Watt, the son of a shipwright of Greenock, discovered that *steam* could be used to work a pump. This wonderful inventor was born at Greenock in the year 1736, and was, from an early age, keenly interested in machines of all kinds. He subsequently found employment, in the University of Glasgow, as a mathematical instrument maker. However, he was not satisfied to make and repair instruments; he also wanted to know the *reason* for everything.

One day he was asked to repair a working model of a Newcomen's steam-engine, known as a "single-acting steam-engine" because only the *upward* stroke

of the piston was acted upon by the steam, the pressure of air causing it to descend. Watt made a careful study of steam, learning all he could about heat, evaporation, and condensation; and, after many trials, he succeeded in inventing a marvellous condensing engine which was "double-acting" in principle—that is to say, the steam that forced the piston up was cooled or condensed, and another jet of steam was directed above the piston to force it down, and so on alternately. Other engines had previously been invented, notably a clumsy one made by Savery in 1699, afterwards improved upon by Newcomen and Smeaton. However, Watt's first patent, taken out in 1769, was the beginning of great changes in the application of steam to machinery; and though his first effort was used only to work pumps for mining operations, he contrived, ere long, steam-engines that would drive all kinds of machines, and in 1785 steam was utilised to drive the machinery in a cotton factory.

Watt, who was a delicate man, had to work hard to sustain himself and his family, being obliged to bargain with men whose wealth could be applied to his schemes, but who took to themselves the lion's share of the profits. One of these richer men, named Boulton, invited Watt to become his partner, and under their auspices quick-working steam-engines soon came into use all over the country. People, especially in London and Manchester, went "steam-mill mad"—a state of affairs which justified Boulton's remark to King George III., "I sell, Sire, what all the world desires—*power*."

Watt was able to retire at the age of sixty-four, leaving to his son the management of the business.

In his beautiful house called Heathfield Hall, Watt continued to reside until his death in 1819, at the age of eighty-three. To the memory of this wonderful man statues have been erected in Westminster Abbey and other places.

An important factor in extending the use of machinery was the development of coal and iron mining. The former had been carried on to some extent during the Roman occupation of Britain. It had subsequently fallen into decay, but had been revived from time to time during the succeeding centuries. It was not, however, until the year 1238 that collieries were opened at Newcastle, and from the reign of Henry III. may be dated the establishment of the coal trade. Prejudice, in favour of wood, afterwards led to the disuse of this useful mineral for some years; but, by the fifteenth century, coal-mining had become so general in the country that it was regarded as a convenient source of revenue. Charles I. continued the practice of taxing the output of coal by the granting of monopolies, until the Long Parliament suppressed the system. By the middle of the eighteenth century it had become customary to use coal, instead of charcoal, for the smelting of iron; but the output was insignificant when compared with the enormous quantity mined to-day.

The application of coal to the smelting of iron had far-reaching consequences. In 1719, the annual output of iron was 180,000 tons; but, by 1740, it had dwindled to 17,350 tons, owing to the increasing scarcity of timber, charcoal-burners having so thinned the forests in some parts of the country (notably in Sussex and Kent), that pig-iron was actually being imported, because we could not smelt sufficient for ourselves.

But, about the time of George II., the two Darbys invented the blast furnace, by means of which coke was first used successfully as furnace fuel. For twenty years the Darbys carried on experiments, until, in 1756, they were able to produce over twenty tons per week, which sold rapidly at a high profit.

Improvements in generating heat by a more effective blast of air were afterwards made by Smeaton, who, in 1760, at Roebuck's Carron Iron Works, succeeded in smelting iron more cheaply and quickly; this led to its more extensive use, and to the transfer of the industry to the great coal-fields of South Wales, the Black Country of South Staffordshire and neighbourhood, and the North of England.

Another improvement made at this time was a process, invented by Huntsman of Sheffield, for making cast-steel. A further impetus was given to the iron industry by the discoveries of Cort, who, in 1783, invented the process known as "puddling," by means of which impurities are burnt out of pig-iron. Cort also invented the use of "rollers," to shape and consolidate the metal, thus making *wrought*-iron of better quality, and enabling it to be produced more cheaply and speedily. By the employment of Cort's processes, immense fortunes were made in the great ironworks of South Wales.

Among the great pioneers of industry of the period must be included Josiah Wedgwood, the potter. He was born at Burslem in 1730; and, after working for some years as a manager for a master-potter, he commenced business on his own account in 1759. The potter's art, however, was not unknown in England before Wedgwood's time, for Dutch and Huguenot immigrants had influenced the state of English pottery

in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries—France being the native land of Palissy, whilst the renowned Delft-ware still testifies to Dutch skill. But Wedgwood first made the art of pottery a science; and the manufacture of the beautiful ware bearing his name became an important industry.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

As the new industries developed, it became more than ever necessary to improve the condition of the roads, which, in the eighteenth century, were unspeakably bad. Coal was generally conveyed from place to place in bags (containing about 280 pounds), slung across the backs of pack-horses. The cost of carriage by road was enormous, as may be judged from the fact that forty shillings per ton was charged for conveying coal from Manchester to Liverpool. As conveyance along the river Irwell for a similar distance was only twelve shillings a ton, it was obviously possible to obtain fuel at a much lower rate where transit by water was available: hence coal was much cheaper at Cambridge (which could be approached by barges from the eastern ports), than at Oxford, right up to which the Thames was not then navigable.

The Duke of Bridgewater, who had some coal mines at Worsley, about six miles from Manchester, thought that if canals could be constructed, after the manner of those he had seen in Holland, it would be possible to supply Manchester people with coal at a much cheaper rate. A Derbyshire mill-wright named James Brindley happened about that time to have made himself somewhat famous by restoring defects in mills and pumps. He was an uneducated man, regarded by some as only half-witted, but he was undoubtedly

possessed of amazing practical genius; and, when introduced to the Duke of Bridgewater, he undertook the construction of the required canal.

The success of the undertaking halved the cost of coal in Manchester, and it also quickly led to the construction of the Grand Trunk Canal from Runcorn, through Cheshire and Staffordshire, to the river Trent. Branches of the last-named canal opened up waterways between Bristol, Hull, and Liverpool, thus linking the waters of the Severn, Trent, and Mersey. Brindley himself was responsible for 360 miles of waterways, and the "canal mania" which followed resulted in the passing of eighty-one Canal Acts between the years 1790 and 1794. England was, ere long, covered with a perfect network of these useful waterways.

There was still a desire to improve the wretched state of the roads. Attempts to maintain roads by tolls collected along the route had been made during the reigns of Queen Anne, George I., and George II.; but the unpopularity of the system ended in its failure. Between 1760 and 1774, Parliament granted no less than 452 Turnpike Acts, empowering parish authorities and others to construct better roads; but a celebrated traveller named Arthur Young, who made tours over the greater part of England as well as France about the end of the eighteenth century, informs us that there were then only four good roads in England.

Bridges built by Smeaton and Rennie across dangerous fords, and the many miles of good roads constructed in Scotland by Telford, reduced to some extent the difficulties of travel. But the more scientific system of road-building was introduced by

John Macadam, who, in 1815, realised the absolute necessity of imitating Roman road-makers by laying good foundations, upon which small angular pieces of stone would bind themselves into a hard smooth surface. Over such roads traffic could pass without breaking up the surface into ruts.

"Macadamised" roads, as such highways are called after their inventor, are still used, and they only yield to the heaviest traffic; though, since the introduction of motor cars, the addition of tar has been found necessary to minimise the amount of dust raised.

Upon such roads, mail coaches, started in 1784 by Palmer of Bristol, were able to keep up an average of eleven or twelve miles an hour for long journeys; and readers of the works of Charles Dickens and other writers may enter into the delights of travel by the stage-coaches of "the good old days."

The results of the Industrial Revolution have been so far-reaching that subsequent chapters will be devoted to a brief account of them.

CHAPTER III

THE AGRARIAN REVOLUTION OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

I. CAUSES

SIDE by side with the Industrial Revolution, changes so great were taking place in agriculture as to constitute an *agrarian revolution*. The busy hives of

industry rapidly springing into existence upon the coal-fields of the country, and the vast increase in population during the latter half of the eighteenth century, raised the demand for food-stuffs to an enormous extent. Corn and meat were chiefly wanted; but England was a "protected" country, that is, duties were placed upon *foreign goods* in order to discourage their entry into competition with home products. Further, Britain being an insular country, the importation of meat and other perishable things was not easy, as there was no cold storage in those days.

Under these circumstances English farmers began to cast about in search of improved agricultural methods; but they realised that under the "open-field" system which still predominated, noticeable progress would be impossible. They therefore wisely concluded that the enclosure system must be extended. Up to the end of the eighteenth century the various enclosures which had taken place included only about two-fifths of the cultivated surface of the country, and the "fencing-in" that had taken place was done contrary to the law of the land. The millions of acres still unenclosed afforded a livelihood for a multitude of small yeomen farmers, but the Enclosure Acts which were passed wholesale during the early part of the nineteenth century quickly reduced the number of small farmers. Between 1727 and 1845, no less than 1385 separate Acts of Parliament were passed authorising enclosures. Before 1801, however, such Acts were only sanctioned in response to petitions presented by a certain number of village landholders who had agreed among themselves that enclosure was desirable.

Only the better educated people understood the advantage to be derived thus; but if the lord of the manor and four-fifths of the commoners agreed to seek a private Act of Parliament, it became possible to carry it through, because the commissioners who were sent down to supervise the carrying out of the scheme were usually wealthy landowners who frequently overlooked the rights of poor men whilst seeking to gratify the demands of the richer farmers.

This system of Private Acts of Parliament was expensive, so in 1801 a General Enclosure Act was passed which lessened the trouble of the landowners in getting the desired Acts of Parliament; and enclosures afterwards spread at such a rate that the system of "common cultivation" soon became extinct.

2. EFFECT ON FARMING

The economic superiority of enclosed lands over the open-field system cannot easily be exaggerated. Under the new arrangement much common land, which formerly had appeared to be worthless, was brought into cultivation. It became possible to introduce improvements in the breeding of sheep and cattle, and in the raising of crops. English sheep and cattle had long been notoriously poor in quality, having been bred mainly for their wool and hides.

So long as it was necessary to turn well-bred animals upon the commonable waste where roamed infected animals, so long was there danger of scab and other diseases. The new method of farming, therefore, led to an improved condition of stock. Sheep with large, loose frame, heavy bones, and long thick legs, gave place to the short-legged creatures

well covered with flesh. Cattle, too, shared in the general improvement.

A comparison of the weights of cattle and sheep sold at Smithfield between 1710 and 1795 shows what great progress was made. Cattle increased in average weight from 370 pounds to 800 pounds; that is, more than double, whilst the average weight of sheep changed from twenty-eight pounds to eighty pounds.

This remarkable change, which brought increased profits to farmers, was due partly to the better care and separation from infection possible under an enclosed system of agriculture, and partly to the introduction of new crops. Root crops such as turnips and carrots were grown even in the seventeenth century; but the thick sowing and insufficient hoeing of turnips had not resulted in luxuriant crops. Jethro Tull taught the value of the hoe, and the better methods of sowing in lines by the aid of a drill. Other gentlemen-farmers adopted his system, with the result that a "four-crop rotation" came into use.

It was then discovered that the deep roots of clover, lucerne, and other valuable grasses, which had been cultivated in the seventeenth century, were capable of breaking up and cleansing the soil; and this discovery led to the custom of sowing clover instead of leaving the land fallow each third year, as had been the case hitherto. Instead, therefore, of corn, corn, fallow (under the three years' "open" system), the rotation became corn, clover, corn, turnips. It is uncertain whether Lord Townshend, after his retirement as Secretary of State in 1730, when he began to farm at Rainham in Norfolk, or Mr. Coke (descendant of the great Chief-Justice Coke), first

undertook this experiment, but as it was mainly at first tried on the Norfolk estates, the four-year rotation was known as the Norfolk Course.

Under the old open system these new kinds of grasses and other crops would have been impossible: hence farming gained by the change.

3. EFFECT ON THE PEOPLE

Improved conditions naturally enhanced the value of the produce, farmers thereby making unusually big profits. But the landowners were not slow to obtain a share in this prosperity by exacting higher rents from their tenants.

To the small farmer the new methods were not an advantage, for it was necessary for him to fence-in his allotment of land—an expensive undertaking. He no longer had the advantage of pasturing his cattle upon the village common, of cutting turf, and gathering wood for fuel. Then came the improved machinery which dealt a death-blow to the domestic system of spinning and weaving, by means of which he had been able to eke out, especially during the winter nights, his small profits derived from farming. Under these circumstances, he was unable to pay the higher rent demanded, and therefore was compelled to give up his small holding. These yeomen farmers, as they were called, who had formed for years the backbone of the nation, were thus gradually driven out.

Holdings thus vacated were soon seized by the richer class of farmer then rapidly coming into existence, for fortunes made by commerce did not give the social status desired, unless accompanied by the possession of big estates. Hence agriculture

came to be regarded as a fashionable undertaking, and rich men eagerly bought up land in large quantities. Thus arose the capitalist farmer, who was able to apply the latest scientific apparatus to farming operations such as drainage and hedging, and to use expensive manures and newly invented machinery.

Increased agricultural prosperity was the result, but the decrease in the rural population was appalling. Thus we learn that the wholesale enclosure movement had produced a number of large landowners possessing huge estates, a larger number of gentlemen-farmers with large farms, and a vast army of *landless* men who either sought employment as labourers on the farms, or went off to the towns with their families in search of new employment.

CHAPTER IV

THE FACTORY SYSTEM

I. ITS BEGINNINGS

THE factory system of manufacture was introduced into this country, from Italy, by three brothers named Lombe. In the weaving of woollen and worsted fabrics, Great Britain had long been in advance of foreign rivals; but in linen and silk making, she was woefully behind. The Lombes of Derby determined to remove this reproach of inferiority; but, as foreign producers kept their mechanical processes strictly secret, the task of the Lombes was not without difficulty and danger.

About the year 1700, John Lombe decided to go to Italy and find out, if possible, the Italian method of spinning silk. His determination to copy their machinery was attended with great risk—death being the punishment if his designs were discovered. Strangers were only allowed to pay hurried visits to the factory when the machinery was in motion, but John Lombe, disguising himself as a poor youth, obtained employment in the mill, where he was set to work upon a spinning engine, and where, because of his presumed poverty, he was allowed to sleep. During the day he worked diligently at his allotted task, but the nights he spent making careful drawings of the machinery by the aid of a dark lantern and mathematical instruments. These drawings were transmitted, by a priest's assistance, to the agents of Messrs. Lombe, who, in turn, forwarded them to England piecemeal in bales of silk.

Lombe escaped to England; but the Italians, who guessed his deception, sent a vessel after him, which, fortunately, failed to overtake him. On the banks of the Derwent in Derbyshire, an English silk mill, said to be two hundred and twenty yards in length, was ultimately established, containing wonderful machinery for spinning and weaving; but, in the meantime, the Derby Corporation lent him the Town Hall as a temporary factory. Thomas Lombe was afterwards knighted, and Parliament voted him £14,000 for the eminent services he had rendered his country's industries.

The silk trade thus established is now carried on at Derby and Belper, at which towns silk-thread, elastic-web, silk gloves, lace net and hose are extensively manufactured.

The great mechanical inventions of those famous pioneers of industry, Hargreaves, Arkwright, Crompton, Watt, and Cartwright, caused the factory system to spread rapidly to cotton, wool, and other industries, until England began to assume that state of activity which has earned for her the nickname " the workshop of the world."

2. HOW THE NEW FACTORIES OBTAINED " HANDS "

Hand-spinners and weavers imagined that the new-fangled machines would throw men out of employment, and lead to a reduction in wages. They were, therefore, extremely angry, and the very lives of the inventors were, in consequence, threatened. Unfortunately, about the beginning of the nineteenth century, the country experienced the poverty produced by the great and costly war with France; and many labourers, both agricultural and manufacturing, banded themselves together and marched from place to place destroying the detested machines. In the Blackburn district, the mob, in one day, smashed every power-loom; and at Nottingham also, serious disturbances arose. Under a leader named Ned Ludd, the rioters were so organised that the riot spread through the whole of the manufacturing districts of England, resulting in a hastily passed law, making machine-destruction a capital offence. In January 1813, sixty-four Luddites were tried, fifteen of whom were executed.

Fortunately for employers, however, there were, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, thousands of unemployed agricultural labourers driven from their native villages in search of new work. These men, along with their wives and children, were drafted

into the factories to undergo a life which was little better than slavery.

There was then no law to protect children employed in factories. On the contrary, parochial authorities were empowered to apprentice the thousands of children under their control, and the factories provided a ready means of ridding the parishes of their responsibility. Wagon-loads of these unfortunate children were sent from London and other places, to provide cheap labour in the mills of Lancashire and Yorkshire. Children of six, even, were compelled to work as many as fifteen hours per day, being rarely allowed to sit down, and having as their only reward the scanty food and clothing supplied.

No wonder that thousands of children perished under such barbarous conditions, and that the small percentage of survivors grew up weak, sickly, deformed, grossly ignorant and depraved.

Children, however, were not the only sufferers, for the conditions of labour for men, and women too, were thoroughly bad. Insufficiently-lighted, ill-ventilated workshops, machinery unfenced, and general insanitary conditions produced their death-toll. Lancashire cotton mills and Sheffield steel works gave off their loads of dust which settled on lungs already weak. The potteries too were responsible for lead poisoning. No wonder that consumption and bronchitis were rife among those toilers, who were carried off in hundreds by terrible scourges. Thousands of women, also, were employed in the factories and mines, where it was well-nigh impossible for them to keep clean-hearted and womanly.

Under such conditions, however, there was an enormous expansion of manufactures (with the con-

sequent growth of large towns), followed by a vast increase of foreign commerce, and the opening up of new markets. The State had no share in regulating the conditions of labour, for, as early as 1776, Adam Smith, a Glasgow professor, had published his *Wealth of Nations* in which he pleaded for the removal of all trade restrictions. Complete freedom for the individual was demanded, it being thought that if men were left to make their own bargains, each would do the best possible for himself, and that the result would be beneficial to all. State interference, it was thought, would only result in muddle. There arose, therefore, the *laissez faire* or "go-as-you-please" policy.

But under such a system, it was impossible for the hungry worker to make the best terms for himself; and children had no part whatever in the bargaining. The system, however, was extremely profitable to most English manufacturers, who, by the employment of keen business methods, soon amassed fortunes. The friendly relationship which had in many cases existed between employers and employed now yielded to an entirely new set of conditions; for it was no longer possible for the employer, or company of employers, to take a personal interest in individual labourers, who became known as "hands."

These toilers, instead of enjoying the pure country air, the green fields, and brown ploughlands, as workers had formerly done, were now resident in the neighbourhood of the mills and factories where was their daily labour. In narrow streets there sprang up rows and rows of little cottages, made grimy by the volumes of thick black smoke belched forth from the chimneys and furnaces.

Manufacturers, on the contrary, journeyed to their

trim surburban villas, where they, having secured financial and industrial power, commenced that agitation for political power which was largely instrumental in bringing about the Great Reform Act of 1832.

3. FACTORY LEGISLATION

It soon became evident that the State must interfere if the conditions of factory life were to improve; and, as the evils had become so great, Parliament passed, in 1802, an Act "for the preservation of the health and morals of apprentices and others employed in cotton and other mills." This effort of Sir Robert Peel (the elder), himself a cotton-spinner, enacted that *child apprentices* should work only twelve hours a day (and do no night-work); they were to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic; to be given one suit per annum; and factories were to be white-washed annually, and always be properly ventilated. Two inspectors, one of whom was to be a clergyman, were to be appointed for each district by the justices of the peace; and fines were to be inflicted for breach of the rules by employers.

As, however, the Act said nothing about children who were *not* apprenticed, its working became so difficult that it was of little practical use. But this was the beginning of a long series of such Acts, each becoming more definite and effective.

In 1819 was passed a new Factory Act prohibiting the employment of children under nine years of age; though, for want of officials to enforce it, this Act failed. That of 1833, limiting the work of children, between nine and thirteen years of age, to nine hours, and that of "young persons" between thirteen and eighteen years to twelve hours, was more successful

owing to the appointment of inspectors to enforce it. By the Act of 1842, the employment of women and children in mines was forbidden.

From time to time, Parliament has since steadily reduced the hours of labour for workers in factories, mines, and workshops. Factory owners are now compelled to keep their mines and workshops clean and well ventilated, and their machines carefully constructed and protected so that the reasonably careful operative shall be free from injury. Government Inspectors of Factories have also been appointed in all districts to see that the rules are kept.

4. TRADES UNIONS

We have already seen that the Factory System led to the giving-up of the *laissez faire* policy; but, although the State began to interfere more and more in industry, the workman still had difficulty in bargaining with his employer. It is evident that the hungry man could not, *alone*, drive an equitable bargain with the rich manufacturer. Hence some combination of labour became desirable.

The destruction of the Trades Gilds, under Edward VI., left labourers without Unions of any kind for about three hundred years; but the introduction of the Factory System proved clearly that some sort of union was necessary if workers were to obtain fair treatment. Early attempts at joint action, however, were forbidden by the State; for, in 1799, all "combinations of workmen to raise wages" were declared illegal. In 1826, combinations of workmen to discuss with employers the question of fair wages became lawful, but a threat to strike was still illegal.

As little benefit could be obtained by legitimate

methods, Trades Unions met in secret; but little progress was made until 1867, when "the Masters and Servants Act" inflicted penalties upon employer and employed alike for all breaches of contract. Parliament, in 1875, enacted that all acts which are legal when done by an individual worker, shall be legal when done by a combination of workers. After this date, the power of Trades Unions rapidly in-increased until, in 1903, the Courts gave two important decisions in connection with the Taff Vale Railway Strike; namely, first, that a Union shall be held responsible for the acts of its agents, and, secondly, that "picketing" (that is, attempting to force work-people to join in a strike) is illegal.

By the Act of 1906, however, "peaceful" *picketing* was declared lawful.

Free education, the Employers' Liability Act of 1880, the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906, Old Age Pensions and National Insurance are also evidence of the interest taken by Parliament in the working classes, and show a marked contrast to the "go-as-you-please" policy formerly in vogue.

CHAPTER V

GENERAL PROGRESS

I. STEAMSHIPS

THE great mechanical inventions, as we have seen, increased enormously the rate of *production*; but, although the making of numerous canals and the

general improvement in the state of the roads had made the *distribution* of goods somewhat easier, it still remained an extremely slow process. Could not steam-power be applied to increase the speed of wagons and boats?

Many men, in the early part of the nineteenth century, were trying to solve this question; and their efforts gradually met with success. In 1803, a little steam-tug, the *Charlotte Dundas* (built by Symington in Scotland), was puffing on the Forth and Clyde Canal. Five years later, an American inventor, named Fulton, placed the *Clermont* on the river Hudson. This steamboat, which ran regularly between New York and Albany, was fitted with a Boulton-Watt engine. Bell's *Comet*, containing a one-cylinder engine, appeared in 1812, plying from Glasgow to Helensburgh; and, shortly afterwards, steamboats became familiar both on English and American rivers.

The application of steam-power to ocean-going vessels quickly followed; for, in 1816, the first steamer crossed from Brighton to Havre; and, as early as 1820, a steamboat service was established between Holyhead and Dublin. In 1819, the Atlantic was crossed in twenty-five days by the *Savannah*, whilst the *Enterprise* journeyed from London to Calcutta in one hundred and three days. By the year 1835 there was also a regular steamship service between Suez and Bombay; and the *Sirius* from Cork and the *Great Western* from Bristol, built in 1838, made Atlantic passages at the rate of ten knots a day.

Let us consider how those early steamships differed from our modern ocean-going vessels. In the first place, we learn that they were mostly built of wood,

and, therefore, were not easily adapted to steam navigation: moreover, they all carried sails, which were used whenever possible. Secondly, they were all *paddle*-boats, and consequently more easily damaged than the modern *screw* steamers.

This drawback was remedied by the introduction of *screw* steamers, the *Great Britain* being the first really large one. This vessel, built in 1843, was not only the first *big* screw steamer; she was also made of iron. Iron vessels have many advantages over wooden ones. They are better able to withstand shock, their speed is greater, and they can carry a much larger cargo. But, since 1880, *steel*, which is stronger and can be made thinner than iron, has been chiefly used in the construction of steamships.

Numerous other improvements, especially with regard to engines, have been made in the construction of great ocean vessels, whilst their size and general furnishing has changed marvellously. A comparison of Bell's *Comet*, the first British steamer, with the *Mauretania*, one of our great modern liners, will help us to appreciate the vast improvements made. The former vessel was 42 feet long, and of three horse-power, whilst the latter is 790 feet long, of 70,000 h.p., of 32,000 tons burden, and can carry 2000 passengers. Still larger is the *Olympic*: so also was the ill-fated *Titanic*. Two of the fastest liners afloat, the *Lusitania* and the *Mauretania*, have made the passage between Queenstown and New York in about four and a half days. These "ocean greyhounds," and the innumerable other vessels busily engaged in commerce, have completely changed the outlook with regard to foreign trade.

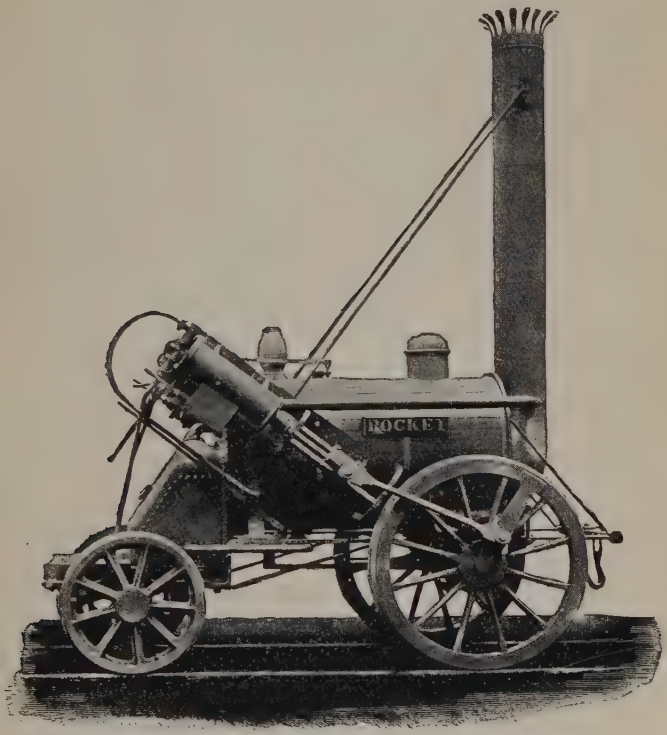
2. RAILWAYS

While some inventors were trying to make boats go by steam, others were striving to apply steam-power to land traffic. Even in the seventeenth century, trucks drawn by horses, upon wooden rails, were common in mining districts; and iron rails came into use towards the end of the eighteenth century. An engine which would run along the roads was also constructed, as early as 1800, by a Cornish inventor named Trevithick. But there was still needed an engine for *hauling* wagon-loads of coal and other commodities; and the attempts of William Hedley resulted in the first working locomotive, the famous "Puffing Billy," which may now be seen in the Patent Office, London.

George Stephenson, formerly employed as an engine-man at Killingworth Colliery, about seven miles north of Newcastle, succeeded in improving upon Hedley's engine, and his well-known "No. 1" was made to draw coal-wagons on the Stockton and Darlington Railway. Stephenson was appointed engineer of this railway, which was the first line opened for passenger traffic as well as goods. Over this railway, in 1825, he drove the first train, consisting of six coal-wagons, one passenger-coach, twenty-one wagons filled with passengers, and then six more coal-wagons, the speed being about twelve miles an hour in some parts.

Stephenson was also engineer of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, and whilst he was there engaged, a prize of £500 was offered for the best locomotive engine capable of drawing three times its own weight at ten miles an hour. Its weight was not to exceed

six tons, and it was not to cost more than £550. Several competitors made engines, and crowds of people witnessed the trial, at which Stephenson's *Rocket*,



The Rocket.

weighing only four and a half tons and drawing a thirteen-ton load at the rate of fifteen miles an hour, gained an easy victory. The line was opened for public traffic on 16th September 1830, and its success was so great that before long there was a "railway

mania" even madder than the canal mania of forty years earlier.

Money was eagerly invested in railways, which soon covered Britain with a network of lines far more intricate than that of the canals. So popular did they rapidly become, that canal traffic was to a great extent superseded, some of the railway companies even buying up some of them lest they should compete seriously with the new lines. Still, the constructors of railways owed much to the pioneers of canals, for Brindley and his successors had already discovered how to construct long tunnels and embankments, so important in railway engineering.

Railway trains not only could carry passengers and goods more quickly than wagons or canal-boats, but they could convey more of them; and, though the cost of carriage by rail was higher than by canal, the more speedy transit induced the majority of people to dispatch their goods by rail. Canals, however, are still used for the distribution of such commodities as coal, stone, and building materials, as rapidity is less important than cost in such cases.

Still, the present is an age when speed is of paramount importance; and the invention and use of the telegraph, the telephone, motor-cars, motor-vans, and the application of electricity to all kinds of locomotives, testify to the existing demand for rapid transit.

3. THE POST OFFICE AND THE PENNY POST

Before the year 1840, the sum charged for the carriage and delivery of a letter varied with the distance the letter was to be carried, the size and shape of the packet, its weight, and the number of sheets it contained. The lowest rate was fourpence, whilst

between London and Brighton the charge was eightpence, and from London to Belfast one and fourpence.

Letters in those days frequently contained references to the fact that the writer had filled the sheet. This constituted an apology for not writing more, or for writing across the lines already written, instead of using another sheet which would have meant increased postage.

Such a system, of course, greatly limited correspondence, and people resorted to various devices in order to evade, as far as possible, the excessive cost. Postage was not prepaid in those days, and the discovery of an ingenious expedient for avoiding payment made it clear that reform was necessary.

It is related that Coleridge one day saw a postman hand a letter to a girl, who, after examining the cover, said she could not afford to pay the shilling demanded. Coleridge, having compassion for the girl, thereupon paid the fee in spite of her begging him not to do so. After the postman had departed she explained that the letter was from her brother in another part of England. They had agreed that, as they were too poor to pay the heavy postage, he should address to her a letter containing a blank sheet. So long as the postman continued to bring the letter she would know that all was well with her brother.

This story reached the ears of a member of Parliament named Mr. Rowland Hill, who at once concluded that a system lending itself to such deception was wrong. He thereupon set to work to devise a new scheme; and, in 1837, proposed the establishment of a penny postage per half ounce throughout Britain; but it was not until 10th January 1840 that his proposals were adopted. In the very first year

the number of letters doubled, and in nine years it was about five times what it had been before 1840.

As early as 1635, a system of *foreign* postage, by means of sailing vessels called "packet boats" running between England and some continental ports, was in use. In 1797, the cost of sending *one* letter to British America was a shilling, and for an ounce four shillings was charged. Letter postage to the Mediterranean "was only ten shillings per ounce" in 1837.

A uniform Colonial and Indian postage, at 2½d. per half ounce, was adopted in 1890; and in 1898 the Imperial penny postage was introduced, enabling us to send a one-ounce letter 12,000 miles to Australia for one penny.

Millions of letters per annum now pass through the post, whose influence has been further extended by the Money Order and Postal Order Department, and the establishment throughout the country of branches of the Post Office Savings Bank. Thus it has been made easier for men and goods, for minds and ideas, to be brought into communication with each other, resulting in the extension of the personal and commercial chain to the farthest corners of the globe.

4. POOR LAW REFORMS

We have seen that the Poor Law system of Elizabeth continued in force for many years, and, though modified from time to time during Stuart times, it underwent little real change. In 1832, however, a Commission was appointed to inquire into the state of the Poor Laws; and in 1834 an Act (which is still in force) was passed embodying their recommendations.

The aim of this measure was to make the pauper's lot so hard, that only the extremely necessitous would apply for relief. Workhouses, which paupers were

compelled to enter, were built all over the country, and "outdoor relief" was reduced to a minimum, being entirely refused to the able-bodied. Parishes were empowered to form Unions for the management and upkeep of workhouses, and Boards of Guardians were to be elected to control the Unions. The system, as a whole, was placed under the control of Poor Law Commissioners; but, since 1871, the Local Government Board has been the central Poor Law Authority.

For about eighty years this system has been in vogue, and it has met with much adverse criticism. John Ruskin in *Sesame and Lilies*, and Charles Dickens in *Oliver Twist* and *Our Mutual Friend*, have accused it of inhumanity; for no assistance can be obtained, according to our present law, until the sufferer has reached absolute destitution. Good laws would try to prevent anyone falling so low.

The general dissatisfaction, due to these and other reasons, led at length to the appointment of a Royal Commission to consider the state of English Poor Laws. In 1909, their report was published; but, as members of the Commission were not unanimous, the suggestions of the Majority have been published separately from those of the Minority. A few minor changes were recommended by the Majority, but the Minority suggested drastic reforms in our Poor Law Administration. Some of its recommendations may be summarised as follows:—

(*a*) Boards of Guardians should be abolished.
(*b*) Necessitous children should be dealt with by Education Committees; the sick and aged by Health Committees; the mentally defective by Asylums Committees.

(*c*) Workhouses should be abolished, thus doing away with the "Workhouse Test," which compels applicants for relief under Poor Law Administration to enter a workhouse.

(*d*) By means of Labour Exchanges, work should be found for the able-bodied; and there should be a reduction in the hours of labour.

(*e*) £4,000,000 should be set aside annually to pay the unemployed for doing work provided by the State.

(*f*) Pensions should be provided for the aged poor.

(*g*) "Won't-works" should be imprisoned in penal settlements.

Some of these recommendations are already in operation, namely, Labour Exchanges and Old Age Pensions; and it is probable that reforms will gradually be effected in some other respects, especially the abolition of the "Workhouse Test."

5. CONCLUSION

We have seen that, under the Mercantile System, England was a "protected" country; but, one by one, the various duties on manufactures and raw materials disappeared, until the establishment of Free Trade was finally brought about by the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846.

By means of Parliamentary reform, greater freedom also followed for the worker, until to-day it is possible for him to pass direct from the mine or the factory, to a seat in the House of Commons, and share, with great landowners, wealthy manufacturers, and successful professional men, in the government of that great Empire upon which the sun never sets.

SUMMARIES OF THE CHAPTERS

I. ROMAN BRITAIN (B.C. 55 TO A.D. 410)

CHAP. I.—THE ANCIENT BRITONS AS CAESAR FOUND THEM

1. THEIR SOCIAL CONDITION.—Not uniformly civilised. Why not? (Swamps, etc.) In the south-east and south-west of the island they were less rude and ignorant than their brethren farther north. Brave warriors skilled in agriculture, mining, manufactures, and commerce; road making, and the navigation of rivers.

   They grew corn, reared flocks of sheep, pigs, goats, and oxen.

   No settled government—tribes often at war with each other.

2. INTERNAL TRADE.—Clothing and armour used prove that the Britons had acquired various arts. Roads were mere tracks along the ridges of hills. Rivers were used for coracles and fishing; stouter vessels of oak on the south coast. Money used.

3. FOREIGN TRADE.—People from Tyre in Phoenicia (to the north of Palestine) came for tin to Cornwall, lead from Derbyshire, furs from native hunters. Offered in exchange gold and silver ornaments and richly-dyed cloths.

   Exports = skins, corn, cattle, iron, gold, tin, slaves, and hunting-dogs.

   Imports = copper, ivory goods, amber beads, glass vessels, salt, earthenware, wines, and finer cloth.

   Hence Imports = manufactured goods (luxuries or necessities): *Exports* = raw materials.

4. RELIGION.—Idolaters—sun, moon, fire, water, oak, and serpent. The Druids were priests and bards.

CHAP. II.—IMPROVEMENTS UNDER ROMAN RULE

1. GENERAL RESULTS.—Julius Caesar visited Britain 55 B.C., and again 54 B.C. The Emperor Claudius in 43 A.D.;

Julius Agricola (78 to 89 A.D.) built a line of forts between the Forth and Clyde ; his fairness and kindness made his rule popular.

The men of London and York copied Roman habits—adopted the Roman toga. Temples and baths of stone constructed ; Roman law and religion adopted.

2. ROMAN ROADS.—Layers of stones, gravel, lime, and concrete : straight across hill and dale.

Four chief roads = Watling Street (London, via St. Albans, etc., to Wroxeter, nr. Shrewsbury) ; Ermine Street (London, via Colchester and Cambridge, to Lincoln) ; Foss Way (Cornwall to Lincoln) ; Icknield Street (probably from Bury St. Edmunds to Salisbury and Southampton). Made primarily for military purposes.

3. TOWNS.—Fortresses and stationary camps along the great roadways.
   (1) *Coloniae* : occupied by Roman veterans (Richborough in Kent, London, Colchester, Bath, Gloucester, Chester and Lincoln).
   (2) *Municipia* : inhabitants elected their own magistrates (York, St. Albans, etc.).
   (3) *Walls*.—Emperor Hadrian, who visited Britain 121 A.D., caused to be constructed a wall and line of forts (Tyne to Solway).

4. AGRICULTURE.—Corn-growing increased ; cherries, flowers, grafting of fruit-trees, fowls, geese, hornless sheep, etc. introduced.

5. ROMAN LAW.—Quarrels no longer adjusted by violence, but in law courts ; Roman law is still studied.

II. ANGLO-SAXON TIMES (449 TO 1066 A.D.)

CHAP. I.—SOCIAL RANKS

1. THEOWES, ESNES, OR THRALLS, *i.e.* SLAVES.—
   (1) Partly descendants of conquered Britons, partly slaves of the conquering Saxons.
   (2) *Causes of Slavery* : crime, debt, famine.
   (3) *Treatment* : they were the actual property of their owners ; had no rights, *i.e.* were not protected by the law ; might even be put to death by their owners. Strangers were not allowed to ill-use the slaves of another ; fine called "wer-gild" imposed, and paid to the owner of the injured slave.

2. FREEMEN.—All protected by the law.
   (1) *Ceorls*: farmer class; farmed own land, or that of lord to whom they paid rent; could quit the land with their lord's consent only. Their "wer-gild" (man-gold) = 266 thrymsas (about 200 shillings). Might be outlawed for serious offences.
   (2) *Eorls, Thanes, Priests* = persons of noble birth; next to the king himself: were "companions" or attendants of the king; regarded as the servants or thegns of the lord (loaf-giver).
   Lesser Thanes = an inferior class. Must own at least five hides: a king's thane, 40 hides (hide = 60 to 100 acres). Even ceorls might rise to this rank; so also might merchants who by their own means had crossed the sea thrice.
   "Wer-gild" of a king's thane = 1200 shillings; of an eorl, 2400 shillings; of a lesser thane, 600 shillings.
3. RELIGION.—The Early Saxons were heathen. Their gods were the Sun, Moon, Tew (god of darkness), Odin or Wodin (War-god), Thor, the Thunderer (god of the air), Frea (goddess of beauty), and Soetere (god of hate). From these we derive the names of our days.
   After the introduction of Christianity, the clergy ranked as "mass-thanes"; the parish, *i.e.* the "priest-shire," was the district ministered unto by the priest. "Glebe" land is the land set apart for the maintenance of cathedrals and abbeys.

CHAP. II.—SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT

1. ROYALTY.—The English were first led by eorls, from whose ranks early tribal kings were chosen. Many years elapsed before the country was governed by *one* king acting as chief magistrate and commander-in-chief of the army. The people's choice was limited to those divinely descended from Odin: later, the eldest son was chosen.
   The king's power was limited by the Witenagemot or Witan (the supreme Council of the nation), whose consent was necessary to all important proposals. The Witan had power to depose the king, declare war, make treaties, levy taxes, and make laws. Wise kings, like Alfred and Athelstan, influenced the Witan's action, except with regard to taxation.
   Kings had supreme power over the "Fyrd" or

national militia. The "wer-gild" of a king was 7200 shillings.

His wife was styled "lady"; sons and brothers, "athelings," a term denoting noble birth.

2. Territorial Divisions.—

Folk-land: land of the people; could not be disposed of by the king without the consent of the Witan.

"*Tun*," "*ton*" (a town), *and* "*ham*" (*home*) was the unit of territorial division; *e.g.* Southampton, Birmingham, etc.

Tithings: combinations of ten such townships.

Hundreds: probably were combinations of ten tithings (100 townships), or 100 free families, or 100 hides of land.

Shire: a share or subdivision of some still larger whole.

Kingdom: union of shires.

3. Courts of Justice.—

(1) *Witan or Great Moot*: met three times annually (Easter, Whitsuntide, Christmas); more frequently if necessary. To it were summoned the Royal Family, Archbishops, Bishops, Eorls, Abbots, and King's Thanes.

(2) *Shire Moot* (called the County Court after the Norman Conquest): met twice a year; all freemen (*i.e.* over 15 years) entitled to attend. Hence it was often called the *Folk-moot* (Court of the People); assembled fully armed with long sword, small round shield, and knife or *seax* in belt; hence *Saxon* or seax-man (knife-man).

The Bishop and an Ealdorman appointed by the Witan presided; decrees executed by Sheriff (shire-reeve), who was appointed by the king; dealt with civil, ecclesiastical, and criminal cases.

(3) *Hundred-Moot*: presided over by Hundred-elder, or Hundred-man; fine or *wite* imposed was exacted from the community, and not from the individual.

(4) *Town Moot or Hall Moot*: held in the hall of the lord's residence; all freemen eligible; monthly meetings; elected beadle and town reeve or Tungerefa; representatives sent from each Court to higher assemblies, thus linking up the various branches of government.

4. Punishments.—Fines, outlawry, slavery, death.

5. Judicial Procedure.—"Compurgation and oath," or "wager of law"; and ordeal.

CHAP. III.—OCCUPATIONS AND PASTIMES OF THE PEOPLE

1. AGRICULTURE.—Wheat, rye, oats, barley; apples, pears, etc.; hives; swine. No root crops, therefore salt meat. Oxen, horses, sheep reared; wool exported; village community, as a whole, responsible.
2. TRADE.—
   Internal: limited by state of roads; manufactures in or near homes.
   Foreign: more extensive; merchants from France, Germany, Scandinavia, Italy, and even Iceland. Alfred extended commerce by building the first native British fleet of any distinction, thus becoming the founder of the British navy; Athelstan likewise encouraged commerce: precious metals, embroideries, furs, skins. *Exports*: raw products, cattle, horses, minerals, slaves (taken in tribal wars).
3. LITERATURE.—Hilda (first lady teacher) lived in Whitby Abbey; among her servants was Caedmon (first English poet), whose writings were based upon Old and New Testament Stories.

   Venerable Bede (Jarrow) was the first Saxon prose writer, mostly in Latin (except an English translation of St. John's Gospel completed on his death-bed). The Saxon Chronicle, instituted by King Alfred, was the most important work in Old English prose.

III. THE NORMAN PERIOD (1066–1154)

CHAP. I.—THE MANORIAL SYSTEM

1. ORIGIN OF THE NAME.—"Manor" is a Norman name meaning "dwelling-place"; used instead of the Saxon word "township"; manors existed before the Norman Conquest.
2. PLAN OF A MANOR: included the manor-house, church, cottages of the tenants, lord's mill, large fields, woodland and waste.
3. INHABITANTS OF A MANOR: lord of the manor (the king himself was lord of many), the parish priest, villeins, bordars or cottars, and slaves.
4. SYSTEM OF CULTIVATION: the three-field system, *i.e.* fallow (grass), wheat, oats; fields divided into strips 220 yards long (furrow-long or furlong), of rod, pole, or perch wide; inhabitants of the manor were allotted a

certain number of strips in each field ; strips separated by a patch of weedy, grassy earth, a foot wide (" *balk* ").

Villeins not only cultivated their own strips, but those of the lord ; worked for him one or two days weekly, and extra days at busy times, such as harvest, haymaking, and ploughing (boon-work) ; also paid fowls, eggs, and oats ; not allowed to leave the district without the lord's consent.

Bordars or Cottars : few strips (one or two), but not more than five to ten acres ; possessed no team of oxen, or plough ; combined for ploughing and other work.

Villeins and cottars were unfree : not *real* slaves ; were bound to the land, therefore were territorial serfs.

Slaves : no land at all, except a tiny plot near their hut ; almost their whole time to their lord's work.

5. Manorial Officials.—
   (1) *Seneschal or Steward* : generally a lawyer ; superintended several manors ; presided over manorial courts ; checked yield of corn, etc. ; supervised other officials.
   (2) *Bailiff* : head of estate ; accounted for the number of acres of meadow cut, amount of ploughing done, quality of work ; bought and sold stock for the lord at local fairs and markets.
   (3) *Provost or Reeve* : elected by villeins from their own number ; supposed to be the best husbandman among them ; exacted services for the lord, therefore unpopular.
   (4) *Hayward* : special officer appointed at times of ploughing, harrowing, haymaking, and harvest.

   Other inferior officers included the head reaper, chief herdsman, miller, smith, carpenter, etc.

CHAP. II.—THE DOMESDAY BOOK

1. Its Purpose.—To make quite clear how much tax each estate should contribute ; *i.e.* its object was *fiscal*.
2. Method of Compilation.—Commissioners called justiciaries appointed to go round and collect the information, between Christmas 1085 and Michaelmas 1086 ; the sheriff, barons, the hundred, the priest, the reeve, and six villeins were assembled and were compelled to give information, *on oath*, about the size, ownership, etc. of the manor ; answers were written down by Norman clerks ; sent to Winchester to make up Domesday Book.
3. Dimensions, etc. of the Book.—Two volumes : Vol. I. = 382 leaves, $14\frac{1}{2}$ ins. $\times 9\frac{3}{4}$ ins., and 60 lines to the page ; Vol. II. = 450 leaves, $10\frac{1}{2}$ ins. $\times 7$ ins., about 30 lines per

page; written in Latin. Book is now in the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane.

CHAP. III.—GENERAL RESULTS OF THE CONQUEST

1. TRADE.—French artisans and merchants flocked to London and other towns, because England was rich in money, minerals, agriculture, and energy; hence commerce, which was retarded whilst the Normans were establishing themselves in the country, increased as the government became stronger. Skilled workers from Flanders and Germany settled in England in order to satisfy the Norman craving for works of art.
2. ARCHITECTURE.—The rebuilding of old churches and the erection of new ones went on rapidly; castles and other strongholds also built, *e.g.* the Tower of London, Rochester Castle, etc.; semi-circular or horse-shoe arches, and later, pointed ones, mark the period.
3. LANGUAGE.—French used in the law courts and schools; new words introduced, *e.g.* beef, veal, mutton, pork, venison, and pullet; hence the Normans were the masters, whilst the English were their servants, dealing with the live animals, as the Saxon words, ox, cow, sheep, steer, swine, calf, deer, and fowl denote.
4. SPORTS.—Tournament and hunting.

IV. GROWTH OF THE PEOPLE (1154–1485)

CHAP. I.—MAGNA CHARTA AND THE FIRST HOUSE OF COMMONS

1. SERF EMANCIPATION.—For exceptional services rendered, *e.g.* saving his master's life; or at death of owner. Placed at four cross-roads and left to go freely; sometimes freed in church or county court.
2. MAGNA CHARTA.—Signed 15th July 1215, by King John; did not *create* English liberties, but summed them up; 63 clauses altogether; no freeman to be imprisoned, deprived of property, outlawed, exiled, or destroyed except by law of the land; justice not to be sold or denied to anyone; trade, both English and foreign, encouraged by the setting up of one standard of weights and measures throughout the kingdom.
3. THE FIRST HOUSE OF COMMONS.—Writs issued in the name of the captive king Henry III., by Simon de Montfort, 14th December 1264, summoning two knights from each shire, two citizens from each city, and two bur-

gesses from each borough to attend the King in Parliament; not until thirty years later did representatives of towns begin to sit regularly in Parliament; but that called by Simon was the first meeting of "lords spiritual and temporal, knights of the shire, citizens and burgesses."

CHAP. II.—TOWNS

1. Their Origin.—Chiefly they are the natural outcome of primitive settlements, which gradually grew in size and importance; usually near bridge or ford or wide estuary; they were mostly military camps in secure positions.
2. Their Purpose and Government.—Primarily, to provide markets; rules governing their conduct were made, and officers appointed to secure the due observance of the regulations.
3. How they obtained Charters.—Mostly by purchase from kings and nobles, who required money to engage in wars, etc.

CHAP. III.—GILDS

1. Early Forms of the Gild.—Word derived from Saxon "gildan," to pay, because each gild had a fund to which every member contributed; early gilds were religious, resembling many modern clubs, their funds being expended in feasts and charity. "*Frith gilds*," *i.e.* gilds of peace, aimed at providing legal assistance; "Frith gilds" ceased to exist shortly after Norman Conquest.
2. Merchant Gilds.—As villages grew into market-towns, more smiths, carpenters, etc. were required, and officials were appointed to see that all dealings were fair; probably *all craftsmen in the town joined* the associations, which were known as Merchant Gilds (tailors, shoemakers, smiths, saddlers, etc. were enrolled); the Merchant Gild controlled all trades within the town, and entered into agreements with the gilds of other towns, non-members were compelled to pay a heavy tax before being allowed to sell any article in the market (food-stuffs being the only exception); Merchant Gilds are first mentioned in 1093, and in 1307 there were such associations in 92 towns out of the 160 then represented in Parliament; each gild had a president and wardens; these gilds also acted as provident and sick clubs; all traders were compelled to sell "openly," which was a boon to buyers; all workers in one trade were induced as far as possible to reside in one street in order to

prevent any difference in the price of goods of like quality.

3. Craft Gilds.—As towns increased in size, the various trades formed their own gilds, *e.g.* wool-workers, metal-workers, etc.; every workman was expected to join his own gild; organisation was similar to that of the Merchant Gild; good work expected, fines imposed for careless work; pensions for old age, sickness, etc.; number of apprentices limited.

N.B.—In the old gilds, both rich masters and poor journeymen were enrolled (modern trades unions embrace only workmen).

CHAP. IV.—THE BLACK DEATH AND THE PEASANTS' REVOLT

1. The Black Death.—
   (1) Probably started in China in 1333; broke out at Melcombe Regis in Dorsetshire, August 1348; thence spread to the Midlands, East Anglia, Wales, Ireland, and Scotland.
   (2) Whole families blotted out; one-third England's population succumbed within a few months; abated in England in the autumn of 1349.
   (3) As workers were reduced in number, wages rose; Parliament attempted to regulate work and wages by the Statute of Labourers, 1350, but failed; law re-enacted with more severe penalties in 1362 and 1368.
   (4) Rise in wages resulted in rise in prices.
2. The Peasants' Revolt, 1381.—
   (1) Distress caused by the Black Death stirred up a spirit of independence among labourers; increased by the writings of William Langland in his *Piers the Plowman*, and by the preaching of Wycliffe's followers and of John Ball.
   (2) Crisis brought about in May 1381 by the attempt to exact an oppressive poll-tax (three groats from all persons over fifteen years of age: a groat, *i.e.* fourpence, being equal to about 6s. 8d. of our money).
   (3) Risings in Kent, Essex, Herts, Surrey, Yorks, Hants, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Somerset.

CHAP. V.—SHEEP-FARMING AND THE WOOLLEN INDUSTRY

1. The Rise of Sheep-farming.—Labour could no longer be obtained at the old rates, therefore landowners decided

to convert corn-growing lands into pasture for sheep, as there was an increasing demand for English wool; fewer workers were needed for such farming, therefore still more men were thrown out of employment.

2. Enclosures.—Impossible to carry on sheep-farming under the "open-field system"; therefore land must be enclosed; great injustice done to many labourers by enclosures, *i.e.* their strips were in many cases taken without compensation being given.

3. Effect of Enclosures on Corn-growing.—Only a small part of the land of the country was enclosed at this time, therefore corn-growing continued; and as the farms became more compact a greater quantity was produced than had been possible on the scattered strips; further, the farmer was not restricted to any special rotation of crops; vagrants increased in numbers, and rebellions ensued, *e.g.* that headed by Ket, a Norfolk tanner.

4. General Results of Enclosures.—Increase in the woollen industry, many families being engaged in its manufacture *at home*; temporary distress among those driven from home by the reduction of the number of farm labourers.

CHAP. VI.—SOCIAL CUSTOMS

1. Dwellings.—Before the end of the twelfth century the single-roomed dwellings of Saxon times gave place to more comfortable buildings having upper rooms, in addition to great halls and kitchens. Tapestry and embroidery hangings served as mural decorations and as screens against draughts. Chimneys appeared at the close of the twelfth century, but did not become common until much later. Windows of glass began to be used in churches and in the houses of the wealthy. Furniture consisted mostly of chairs and benches; rugs and blankets served as bed-covering instead of sheets, which were not then much used.

2. Table Customs.—Artificial light was expensive, therefore early rising was the rule; hence meals were served early. Dinner was the chief meal: all assembled in the great hall; table down the centre; dais or platform at the upper end for master, mistress, family, and guests; servants and retainers at the lower end. Meats, fish, vegetables, wines and other luxuries supplied. Fingers freely used; meat carved upon huge flat cakes; basin of water and towel for each person; minstrel song and story, or hawking and hunting, engaged attention after dinner. Households were large, therefore the ovens were immense; large staff of cooks, etc.

3. Costume.—The garb of the labourer changed little; that of upper classes altered frequently, and was often extravagant.
4. Wayfarers.—Roads, though much improved, were still bad; infested by highwaymen; litters used; inns plentiful. Messengers, pedlars, quack-doctors, friars, pilgrims, minstrels, etc. moved from place to place.

V. TUDOR AND STUART TIMES (1485–1714)

CHAP. I.—THE MERCANTILE SYSTEM

1. Meaning of the Term.—The increase of national power and influence by means of the State regulation of trade and industry.
2. Means Adopted to make England Great.—A strong fleet, large supplies of home-grown corn, home trade to be increased, and an ample supply of gold in the country. Thus England was to be made independent of the foreigner.

CHAP. II.—ENGLISH TRADING COMPANIES

1. Their Origin.—The Hanseatic League, probably founded about 1200, A.D. was composed of North German merchants; the English branch had, for hundreds of years, a warehouse in London known as the "Steelyard," near where Cannon Street Station now stands; privileges of the "Steelyard" were abolished by Parliament in 1552, in order to pacify English traders; some privileges restored in 1554; English branch was afterwards finally abolished.
2. The "Staple" and the Merchant Adventurers' Company.—Originally the word "staple" meant simply "market"; "Merchants of the Staple" obtained a charter from Edward II. as early as 1313. Certain towns had the sole right to sell certain goods, known as the staple goods of the town. Edward III. placed it upon a sound basis by means of the "Ordinance of the Staple," 1354; the Statute enumerates the staple towns in England, their ports, and the towns to which certain goods must be taken to be exposed for sale.

   The Merchant Adventurers' Company secured its charter in 1505; traded between Hamburg, Rotterdam, and the Netherlands; English cloth and wool carried thither; fine linens, tapestries, hops, wines, soap, and other manufactured goods brought home in exchange.

3. The East India Company.—Formed towards the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign under the title of "The Company of Merchants of London trading into the East Indies." Was a joint-stock association, the individual members of which provided the capital and shared the profits. First trading venture was in February 1601: five ships, carrying chiefly bullion, iron, tin, glass, cutlery and broadcloth; brought home rice, cotton, precious stones, silk, sandalwood, and spices (pepper, cloves, ginger).

   Factory set up at Surat in 1612; others on the Hoogly and other centres; *e.g.* Fort St. George in Madras. The Company ceased to exist, as a trading concern, in 1833; received its death-blow in 1857, during the Mutiny, but the foundation of our Indian Empire was laid by it.

4. Other Trading Companies included the Levant Company (trading with Turkey, Asia Minor, and Syria, came into existence in 1581); the Darien Company (chartered in 1695 by a Scottish Parliament to trade with the isthmus of Darien in Central America—a failure); the Hudson Bay Company, and many others. By means of such companies our Empire was expanded.

CHAP. III.—THE GROWTH OF ENGLISH MANUFACTURES

1. The "Domestic" System: *i.e.* work carried on in the *homes* of the people; the *trader* or middleman came into existence to aid in the *distribution* of commodities.
2. Foreign Influence.—Flemish and French weavers, who sought refuge from religious persecution, introduced into England the manufacture of finer cloths, silks, cutlery, pottery, glass, paper, watches, clocks, beaver hats, mechanical toys, etc.
3. Native Industries.—The textile industry already existed in England, before the Flemish and French refugees arrived, but they improved it. Mining and metal working, the use of coal for smelting, and the discovery and use of rock salt, increased our native industries. Strafford established the linen industry in Ireland.

CHAP. IV.—THE AGRARIAN REVOLUTION OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

1. Causes of the Distress.—Increased taxation due to Henry VIII.'s extravagance, the Reformation, dissolution

of the monasteries, the extension of sheep-farming, and the debasement of the coinage.

2. Attempted Remedies.—Harsh laws against beggars ; the Poor Law Act of Elizabeth, 1601.

CHAP. V.—IMPROVEMENTS IN AGRICULTURE

1. In Tudor Times.—Vegetables, such as carrots, cabbages, and celery, introduced by Flemish and Dutch refugees ; growth, at home, of root crops reduced the necessity for killing cattle so extensively ; greater amount of *capital* was expended on the land ; breed of horses and cattle improved.
2. In Stuart Times.—Root crops more extensively cultivated ; the draining of land received special attention, hence cattle and crops were improved ; soil improved by the process known as "marling" (mixture of chalk and clay with sandy soils ; the addition of sand to heavier soils).

CHAP. VI.—SOCIAL LIFE IN TUDOR TIMES

1. Dwellings.—The houses of the nobility and higher classes were no longer fortified castles, but convenient and comfortable places of abode. The castle was transformed into the palace or "hall" of the noble, or into the manor-house of the squire.

   Town houses were still built of wood, the fronts of which were carved and ornamented, and the upper storeys projecting. The houses of the poorer classes were often mean, wretched hovels. Brick or stone began to be used for building. Chimneys were now generally introduced, and glass filled the windows.
2. Style of Living.—Great changes took place in the style of living, and more attention was paid to comfort and cleanliness. The principal meal of the upper classes was dinner, and it generally consisted of beef and mutton and bread, though frequently other meats were provided in abundance, *e.g.* veal, lamb, kid, pork, coney, capon, venison, wild-fowl, and fish. The poorer classes still ate bread made of barley or rye. Fingers were still used in the place of forks. The potato and the tobacco plants were introduced at this time, and melons, gourds, cucumbers, parsnips, pumpkins, carrots, turnips, and marrows were freely used.
3. Dress.—The ladies and nobles of Elizabeth's time spent large sums of money upon their dress. They wore silks and velvets of the brightest colours, trimmed with

expensive lace. Enormous ruffs of plaited linen were worn. The ladies wore wigs of light-coloured hair, adorned with pearls.

4. Sports and Pastimes.—Music and dancing, and games of various kinds formed the amusements of the people. Archery was engaged in, as well as sword and lance exercises. Fishing, shooting, hunting, bear-beating, bull-baiting, and cock-fighting were favourite amusements of many.

In town life the theatre was the principal form of recreation.

5. Learning and Literature.—All the Tudor sovereigns, except the first, were eminent for scholarship. Sixteen colleges at Oxford and Cambridge and five great public schools were founded in England. The Scottish Universities of Edinburgh and Aberdeen, and Trinity College, Dublin, belong to this period.

There were many able writers, both in poetry and prose. The best poets were Spenser and Shakespeare. Sir Walter Raleigh's *History of the World* is a good example of the prose written at this time.

CHAP. VII.—SOCIAL LIFE IN STUART TIMES

1. Houses and Architecture.—Air and light were valued as necessary to health. In London, till after the Fire, houses were built with the upper storeys projecting over the lower. In many towns the houses were built like this. As time went on, architects built in the Italian style, wishing to make the buildings look grand. Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren were two celebrated architects. Wren built St. Paul's Cathedral, and many churches in London.

Furniture was both useful and beautiful in the better houses.

2. Style of Living.—The upper classes lived in great magnificence, especially in London. The country gentry spent their time near home, going to market, etc. Country ladies looked after their houses, and sewed or spun. They were not well educated. Country clergy were poor, and had few books. A few of them were learned and pious, like George Herbert, a country rector. The poor in the country worked the farms. Some were engaged in manufactures, and were badly paid. Children went to work when very young.

The trading classes grew in wealth and influence. London merchants were a powerful body, and lived comfortably.

Knife and fork began to be used, though the latter seldom.

3. Coffee-Houses.—Chocolate and coffee were introduced, and later, tea. In the reign of Charles II. coffee-houses were opened, where men met to drink coffee and to talk. News and politics were discussed.

4. Roads and Travelling.—Roads were bad, though each parish was supposed to mend its roads. The rich used coaches; poorer people the carrier's wagon. In 1669 a coach left Oxford at six in the morning, and reached London at seven in the evening. Inns were good. Highwaymen were many, so travelling was dangerous. The streets of London were in a shocking state; until nearly the end of the reign of Charles II. they were not lighted at all. Coaches were much used; also boats and barges on the Thames. After the Fire much of London was rebuilt.

Robbers in the country gradually became fewer; property was safer. Better laws for the poor were made. In 1697 a workhouse was built at Bristol.

5. Dress.—Dress was very splendid in the time of the Stuarts, except among the Puritans, who dressed very plainly. Feathers, lace, and jewellery were worn, and the Royalists were fond of bright colours. Wigs were first worn in the reign of Charles II., also shoe-buckles. Great sums were spent on lace.

6. Amusements.—In the country, dancing, archery, leaping, the setting up of Maypoles on May-day, and hockey were favourite amusements. Tennis and "Pall-Mall" were played by the richer people. The Puritans thought these games wrong. The game-laws were strict. Cards became fashionable. During the Protectorate the theatres were closed, but after the Restoration they were much in favour.

7. Science, Literature, etc.—The Royal Society was founded in 1660 for the development of Science. Many valuable discoveries were made (Law of Gravitation, Circulation of the Blood).

The first steam-engine was used in 1698 (for pumping). The first Eddystone Lighthouse was built in 1699; the second in 1709.

Letters were delivered by men on horseback once or twice a week in the country. In 1635 letters were sent to and from Edinburgh and London. In 1710 a general Post-Office was set up for the three kingdoms.

Until the press became free, in 1695, books were scarce and dear. The first newspaper appeared in 1641 (*The Weekly News*). Others followed.

Milton was the chief poet. Other writers of prose and poetry were Bunyan, Dryden, Pope, Addison, Steele, Swift, Defoe Locke. Jeremy Taylor wrote religious books; Herrick, lyrical poetry.

There were no great English painters. Portrait painting was fashionable. The foreign artists employed were Van Dyck, Rubens, Lely, Kneller.

The chief musical composers were Lawes and Purcell. The lute was a favourite instrument. The harpsichord was introduced into England in 1630.

VI. MODERN TIMES

CHAP. I.—BANKING AND THE CREDIT SYSTEM

1. WHY THE SYSTEM AROSE.—The rapid increase in the number of "traders," whose chief essential is money, made the system of banking and "trade-credit" necessary.
2. HOW THE SYSTEM AROSE.—Private companies (notably the London Goldsmiths) were prepared to pay a moderate interest for the loan of money, which they in turn lent to traders and others at a higher rate. Charles I., Oliver Cromwell, Charles II. and William III. found such companies useful. Montague, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, raised a loan in January 1693, on the security of the whole nation, backed by the pledge of the Government; this was the beginning of the National Debt. In 1751, such loans obtained by the Government were all placed together in one "Consolidated" three per cent. stock, from which the name "Consols," now applied to Government stock, originated.
3. THE BANK OF ENGLAND.—William Paterson, a Scotchman, had suggested the raising of £1,200,000 from the public, in order to lend to the Government at 8 per cent.; the scheme was successful, and the Bank of England was founded on 27th July 1694, to free William of Orange from the financial embarrassment in which he was placed owing to the wars in which he had engaged.

   The three departments of the Bank of England are:
   (1) *The "Stock" Department*, which manages the National Debt and other State loans.
   (2) *The "Issue" Department*, created in 1844, to prepare, issue, and circulate Bank of England Notes (*the sole legal paper currency of the realm*).
   (3) *The "Banking" Department*, which transacts on a gigantic scale the business of an ordinary bank.

CHAP. II.—THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

1. MEANING OF THE TERM.—The great changes which came so rapidly over the industrial and social life of the English people, between the years 1760 and 1840.
2. THE GREAT MECHANICAL INVENTIONS.—
   (1) John Kay, in 1733, invented a new shuttle, which rendered the work of the weaver quicker.
   (2) John Wyatt, in 1733, produced at Sutton Coldfield a spinning-wheel able to spin a thread of cotton, unaided by human fingers.
   (3) James Hargreaves, of Stand-hill, near Blackburn, about 1770, invented the Spinning Jenny.
   (4) Richard Arkwright, in 1771, invented the "water-frame."
   (5) Samuel Crompton, in 1779, made "the spinning-mule."
   (6) Dr. Edward Cartwright, in 1784, invented a *power* loom.
3. COAL-MINING AND THE METAL TRADES.—
   (1) Machinery was revolutionised by the application of *steam-power*. Savery in 1699, and Newcomen and Smeaton later, had invented engines; but Watt's first patent, in 1769, was the beginning of great changes, in applying steam to work a pump. Ere long, steam-engines that would drive all kinds of machines were contrived by him.
   (2) By the middle of the eighteenth century it had become customary to use coal, instead of charcoal, for the smelting of iron.
   The blast-furnace, by means of which coke could be used as furnace fuel, was invented by the two Darbys about George II.'s time. Smeaton, in 1760, improved upon the "blast" at Roebuck's Carron Iron Works.
   Huntsman of Sheffield improved the method of making cast-steel; and Cort, in 1783, invented the process known as "puddling" (the burning-out of impurities from pig-iron).
   (3) Josiah Wedgwood, the potter, first made the art of pottery a science during this period of industrial change.
4. DEVELOPMENT OF MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.—
   (1) Water-carriage was much cheaper than carriage by road: hence the "canal mania." The Duke of Bridgewater, a colliery owner, was

assisted by James Brindley, a Derbyshire mill-wright, in constructing canals.

(2) Turnpike Acts, empowering parish authorities, and others, to construct better roads, were passed between 1760 and 1774 in great numbers (452).

Bridges were built by Smeaton and Rennie across dangerous fords, and Telford constructed many miles of good roads in Scotland. John Macadam, however, introduced the more scientific system of road-making, which still bears his name.

CHAP. III.—THE AGRARIAN REVOLUTION OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

1. Causes.—More corn and meat were required in the busy industrial hives which had sprung into existence ; but Britain, being a "protected" country, was not able to import sufficient food-stuffs owing to heavy duties. English farmers therefore sought to improve agricultural methods, by extending the Enclosure System. Between 1727 and 1845 no less than 1385 separate Acts of Parliament were passed authorising enclosures.
2. Effect on Farming.—Cattle, sheep, and crops improved vastly under the enclosed system of farming ; and the "four-crop rotation" came into use (corn, clover, corn, turnips)—*The Norfolk Course.*
3. Effect on the People.—The small yeomen farmers were driven out, and there arose the class known as capitalist farmers, who were able to apply the latest scientific apparatus to farming operations.

CHAP. IV.—THE FACTORY SYSTEM

1. Its Beginnings.—Introduced from Italy by three brothers named Lombe, early in the eighteenth century.
2. "Hands" were obtained easily, because thousands of agricultural labourers were unemployed owing to the extension of the enclosed system of farming, which required fewer helpers. Pauper children were also drafted by thousands into the factories, where their life was little or no better than slavery. The State did not protect them—*laissez faire* or "go-as-you-please" policy.
3. Factory Legislation.—It soon became evident that the State must interfere if the conditions of factory life were to improve. *The First Factory Act was passed in* 1802 : it enacted that *child apprentices* should work only 12

hours a day (and do no night-work); they were to be taught reading, writing, and arithmetic; to be given one suit per annum; factories were to be whitewashed annually, and always be well ventilated; two inspectors were to be appointed for each district by the justices of the peace; fines were to be inflicted for breach of the rules by employers.

N.B.—Children who were *not* apprentices were not mentioned; hence the Act was of little practical use.

In 1819 a new Factory Act was passed: it forbade the employment of children under nine years of age; failed for want of officials. *The Act of* 1833, limiting the work of children between 9 and 13 years of age to nine hours, and that of "young persons" between 13 and 18 years to twelve hours, was more successful (inspectors).

The Act of 1842 prohibited the employment of women and children in mines.

4. Trades Unions.—
   (1) Early attempts at joint action were forbidden by the State; *e.g.* in 1799, all "combinations of workmen to raise wages" were declared illegal.
   (2) In 1826, combinations of workmen to discuss with employers the question of fair wages became lawful; but a threat to strike was still illegal.
   (3) The "Masters and Servants Act" of 1867 inflicted penalties upon employers and employed alike for breaches of contract.
   (4) Act of 1875 enacted that acts which are legal when done by individuals, shall be legal when done by a combination of workers. The power of Trades Unions then rapidly increased.
   (5) In 1903, the Courts gave two important decisions in connection with the Taff Vale Railway Strike: first, that a Union shall be held responsible for the acts of its agents; and secondly, that "picketing" (*i.e.* attempting to force work-people to join in a strike) is illegal.
   (6) By the Act of 1906, "peaceful" *picketing* was declared lawful.

CHAP. V.—GENERAL PROGRESS

1. Steamships.—
   (1) The *Charlotte Dundas*, a little steam-tug, was puffing on the Forth and Clyde Canal in 1803; built by Symington in Scotland.

(2) In 1808, the *Clermont* was placed on the river Hudson by Fulton (an American inventor); ran regularly between New York and Albany; was fitted with a Boulton-Watt engine.

(3) Bell's *Comet*, containing a one-cylinder engine, appeared in 1812, plying between Glasgow and Helensburgh.

(4) Steam power, applied to ocean-going vessels, quickly followed.

(5) The first *big screw* steamer (the *Great Britain*) was built in 1843; she was built of *iron*; previous vessels had been of wood.

2. Railways.—

(1) Trevithick, a Cornish inventor, constructed, in 1800, an engine which would run along the roads.

(2) William Hedley's "Puffing Billy" was the first *working* (*i.e. hauling*) locomotive; it may now be seen in the Patent Office, London.

(3) George Stephenson's "*No.* 1" was an improvement upon Hedley's engine; it was made to draw coal-wagons on the Stockton and Darlington Railway; over this line Stephenson drove the first train in 1825; his *Rocket* won the £500 prize, offered by the Liverpool and Manchester Railway for the best locomotive engine capable of drawing three times its own weight at ten miles an hour; its weight not to exceed six tons, nor its cost £550; the *Rocket* weighed only four-and-a-half tons, and could draw a thirteen-ton load at the rate of fifteen miles an hour.

3. The Post Office and the Penny Post.—

(1) On the 10th January 1840, Mr. Rowland Hill's proposal was adopted, namely, that a penny postage (per half ounce) throughout Britain should be established. The cost of postage had previously varied with the size, shape, weight, distance to be carried, and the number of sheets the letter contained; the lowest rate was fourpence; London to Brighton was eightpence.

(2) In 1797, *one* letter to British America cost a shilling; for an ounce four shillings was charged.

(3) Letter postage to the Mediterranean was ten shillings per ounce in 1837.

(4) In 1890, a uniform Colonial and Indian postage, at 2½d. per half ounce, was adopted.

(5) The Imperial penny postage was introduced in 1898 (one ounce letters may be sent 12,000 miles, to Australia, for one penny).

4. Poor Law Reforms.—

(1) Elizabeth's Poor Law system continued in force for many years.

(2) In 1832 a Commission was appointed to inquire into the state of the Poor Laws; and in 1834 an Act was passed embodying their recommendations (this Act is still in force).

The aim of this Act is to make the pauper's lot so hard that only the extremely necessitous will apply for relief; *e.g.* they must be prepared to enter a workhouse. Parishes were empowered to form Unions, and Boards of Guardians were to be elected to control the Unions. The system, as a whole, was placed under the control of Poor Law Commissioners; but, since 1871, the Local Government Board has been the Central Poor Law Authority.

(3) The Report of the Royal Commission to consider the state of English Poor Laws was published in 1909; the Commission were not unanimous; the suggestions of the majority have been published separately from those of the minority; the majority recommended only a few minor changes, but the minority suggested drastic reforms in our Poor Law Administration, some of which have already been put into operation.

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CHRONOLOGY

ROMAN PERIOD

55 B.C. . .	Julius Caesar, the great Roman general, landed near Dover with about 12,000 men; remained about seventeen days.
54 . . .	Caesar returned with about 32,000 foot and 2000 horse soldiers; defeated Cassivelaunus and imposed a tribute on the Britons.
43 A.D. . .	After about a century's absence, the Romans again took possession of Britain; Aulus Plautius defeated the British chief, Caractacus. The Emperor Claudius himself visited Britain for a few days.
51 . . .	Caractacus again defeated, and sent as a prisoner to Rome.
61 . . .	Suetonius Paulinus captured Anglesea; Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, defeated.
78–89 . .	Julius Agricola, the father-in-law of Tacitus, Governor of Britain; his fleet sailed round the island.
81 . . .	Chain of forts, from the Clyde to the Forth, built by Agricola to keep back the Caledonians.
121 . . .	Hadrian built a wall from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Firth.
139 . . .	Wall built by Antoninus Pius, on the site of Agricola's chain of forts.
211 . . .	The Emperor Severus strengthened Hadrian's Wall.
304 . . .	St. Alban put to death—the first British martyr.
306 . . .	The Emperor Constantius died at York.
410 . . .	The Romans finally quitted the island to protect Rome against the Goths and other tribes from the north of Europe.

SAXON PERIOD

449 A.D. . The Old English begin to settle in Britain.

449–586 . Seven Anglo-Saxon kingdoms established.

1. Kent; founded by Hengist 457.
2. Sussex (including Surrey); founded by Ella 490.
3. Wessex (including all counties west of Sussex and south of the Thames, except Devon and Cornwall); founded by Cerdic 419.
4. Essex (including Middlesex); founded by Ercenwin 527.
5. Northumbria (Humber to the Forth); founded by Ida 547.
6. East Anglia (Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridge); founded by Uffa 575.
7. Mercia (Midland counties); founded by Cridda 586.

597 . . . St. Augustine, sent by Pope Gregory, converted Kent to Christianity.

664 . . . Caedmon, the first English poet (a monk in Whitby Abbey).

755 . . . Death of Bede, author of the first Saxon prose writings.

787 . . . The Danes began their ravages on England.

827 . . . Egbert, King of Wessex, first King of the English.

871 . . . Alfred the Great comes to the throne. Defeat of the Danes at Wilton.

878 . . . Alfred defeated the Danes at Ethandune. Treaty of Wedmore signed.

901 . . . Death of Alfred.

1002 . . Massacre of the Danes. St. Brice's Day.

1016 . . Canute the Dane becomes King.

1016–1042 . Danish kings held sway in England.

1042 . . Edward the Confessor comes to the throne—the Saxon line restored.

1066 . . Harold, the last Old English king, slain at Senlac.

THE NORMAN PERIOD

1066 . . William I. is crowned.

1085 . . Domesday Book compiled; completed 1086; kept in the treasury at Winchester Cathedral;

removed to the Chapter House, Westminster, 1698 ; transferred to the Public Record Office in Chancery Lane 1857.

1087 A.D. . William II. is crowned.
1100 . . . Henry I. is crowned. Issued a Charter of Liberties.
1135 . . Stephen of Blois is crowned.
1138–1148 . Civil war between Stephen and Matilda (daughter of Henry I.).
1138 . . Battle of the Standard, near Northallerton (Stephen defeated David, King of Scotland, who invaded England on behalf of his niece Matilda).
1153 . . Treaty of Winchester (Henry, Matilda's son, recognised as Stephen's heir).

PLANTAGENET PERIOD

1154 . . Henry II. ascended the throne ; he also ruled over more than half of France.
1159 . . Scutage imposed (great blow to Feudalism as a military system).
1162 . . Thomas Becket became Archbishop of Canterbury.
1164 . . Constitutions of Clarendon.
1166 . . Assize of Clarendon (criminal law reformed ; trial by jury established).
1170 . . Murder of Becket in Canterbury Cathedral.
1171 . . Henry II. invaded Ireland and annexed it to England.
1176 . . Assize of Northampton (fixed circuits were allotted to itinerant justices).
1189 . . Richard I. (Coeur de Lion) became King.
1199 . . John became King.
1204 . . Loss of English possessions in France.
1208 . . England under an interdict (religious life suspended by the Pope).
1213 . . John declares himself the Pope's vassal.
1215 . . Magna Charta signed.
1216 . . Death of John. Henry III. became King.
1258 . . The Mad Parliament. The Provisions of Oxford.
1263–1265 . Barons' War.
1264 . . Battle of Lewes. Henry taken prisoner by Simon de Montfort.
1265 . . De Montfort's Parliament. Battle of Evesham. De Montfort slain.

1272 A.D. .	Edward I. became King.
1283 . .	Conquest of Wales. Llewelyn, the last native Prince, killed.
1284 . .	First English Prince of Wales born in Carnarvon Castle.
1285 . .	Regular Assize Courts commenced.
1291 . .	Edward decides that John Balliol is King of Scotland.
1294 . .	War with France.
1295 . .	The Model Parliament met (burgesses, knights of the shire, clergy, archbishops, bishops, earls, and barons).
1296 . .	Balliol revolts. War with Scotland. Defeat of the Scots at Dunbar.
1297 . .	Confirmatio Cartarum passed (King renounced his claim to arbitrary taxation). The English defeated near Stirling by Sir William Wallace.
1298 . .	Battle of Falkirk. Wallace defeated.
1305 . .	Wallace executed as a traitor.
1306 . .	Robert Bruce assumed the crown of Scotland.
1307 . .	Edward II. becomes King.
1310 . .	Barons appoint Lords Ordainers to regulate the affairs of state.
1314 . .	Invasion of Scotland. Defeat of the English at Bannockburn. Establishment of Scottish Independence.
1327 . .	Edward II. deposed and murdered. Edward III. becomes King.
1328 . .	The Independence of Scotland recognised.
1333 . .	Battle of Halidon Hill. Edward Balliol restored to the Scotch throne.
1337 . .	Beginning of the Hundred Years War.
1340 . .	Battle of Sluys ; defeat of the French fleet.
1346 . .	Battle of Crecy ; French defeated by the English under Edward the Black Prince.
1347 . .	Calais captured by the English.
1348 . .	The Black Death appeared in England at Melcombe Regis, Dorset.
1349 } 1351 } . .	Statutes of Labourers.
1351 . .	Statute of Treason passed.
1356 . .	Battle of Poitiers.
1360 . .	Treaty of Bretigny. Edward renounced all claim to the French throne.
1362 . .	The use of English in Courts of Law instead of Norman-French.
1376 . .	Death of Edward the Black Prince. The " Good

Parliament" met (had a definitely appointed Speaker; the right of the Commons to impeach established).

1377 A.D. . Richard II., son of the Black Prince, becomes King.
1381 . . The Peasants' Revolt.
1384 . . Death of John Wycliffe at Lutterworth, Leicestershire.
1399 . . Richard II. deposed by his cousin Henry Bolingbroke. Henry IV. becomes King.
1400 . . Death of the poet Geoffrey Chaucer.
1407 . . First "collision" between the two Houses of Parliament.
1413 . . Henry V. becomes King.
1415 . . Battle of Agincourt; defeat of the French.
1420 . . Treaty of Troyes signed. Henry V. proclaimed Regent of France; he married Catherine, daughter of Charles VI. of France.
1422 . . Henry VI. becomes King.
1429 . . Joan of Arc raises the siege of Orleans.
1431 . . Joan of Arc burnt to death at Rouen.
1450 . . Jack Cade's Rebellion.
1453 . . Calais the only remaining English possession in France.
1455 . . The Wars of the Roses commenced.
1461 . . Edward IV. becomes King.
1471 . . Warwick the King-maker slain at the battle of Barnet. Death of Henry VI.
1483 . . Edward V. becomes King; reigns only a few weeks. Richard III. becomes King.
1485 . . Richard III. is slain at the battle of Bosworth Field in Leicestershire.

TUDOR PERIOD

1485 . . Henry VII. becomes King.
1486 . . Henry of Lancaster marries Elizabeth of York. The Court of Star Chamber revived.
1487 . . Lambert Simnel proclaimed as Edward VI. Defeat of Simnel at Stoke.
1249 . . Discovery of America by Columbus. Perkin Warbeck appears. Benevolences (forced loans) received Parliamentary sanction.
1495 . . Poynings' Law, or the Statute of Drogheda, passed.
1499 . . Perkin Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick executed.

1503 A.D. .	James IV., King of Scotland, married Margaret, daughter of Henry VII.
1509 . .	Henry VIII. becomes King.
1510 . .	Execution of Empson and Dudley, the instruments of Henry VII.'s extortion.
1513 . .	Battle of Spurs. Battle of Flodden Field (in Northumberland), in which James IV. of Scotland was defeated and slain.
1515 . .	Wolsey made Chancellor by Henry, and Cardinal by the Pope.
1527 . .	Henry seeks the annulment of his marriage with Catherine of Arragon.
1529 . .	Fall of Wolsey. Thomas More becomes Chancellor.
1529–1536 .	The Reformation Parliament sat.
1530 . .	Death of Wolsey at Leicester Abbey.
1532 . .	Commencement of the Reformation in England.
1534 . .	Act of Supremacy. The Pope's authority in England abolished. Henry VIII. declared "Supreme Head of the Church of England."
1535 . .	Execution of Sir Thomas More. Treasons Act passed.
1536 . .	Suppression of the lesser monasteries.
1539 . .	The greater monasteries suppressed.
1541 . .	Henry declared King of Ireland.
1547 . .	Edward VI. becomes King. Battle of Pinkie (Scots defeated).
1549 . .	Act of Uniformity passed. Rising in Norfolk, headed by Ket, a tanner.
1553 . .	Mary becomes Queen.
1554 . .	Execution of Lady Jane Grey. Mary married Philip, heir to the Spanish throne.
1555–1558 .	The Marian persecution: men, women, and children burnt, including Archbishop Cranmer, and Bishops Hooper, Latimer, and Ridley.
1558 . .	Loss of Calais. Elizabeth comes to the throne.
1565 . .	Mary Queen of Scots married her cousin Lord Darnley.
1577 . .	Drake starts on his voyage round the world.
1584 . .	Raleigh takes possession of Virginia.
1587 . .	Execution of Mary Queen of Scots. Drake attacks Cadiz and delays the Armada.
1588 . .	Defeat of the Spanish Armada.
1596 . .	Cadiz captured by the Earl of Essex and Lord Howard.
1600 . .	The East India Company established.
1601 . .	The first Poor Law passed.
1603 . .	Death of Elizabeth.

STUART PERIOD

1603 A.D.	Accession of James I. (James VI. of Scotland).
1604	The Hampton Court Conference (meeting between Bishops and Puritans to discuss Church matters; new translation of Bible made). "A Form of Apology and Satisfaction" was drawn up by the Commons (asserted three great privileges).
1605	Gunpowder Plot discovered; it aimed at the restoration of the Roman Catholic religion.
1607	Foundation of the Colony of Virginia.
1610	Ulster colonised.
1611	Present edition of Bible published.
1618	Beginning of the Thirty Years War; a struggle between the Protestant and Catholic Princes of Germany. Execution of Raleigh.
1620	The "Pilgrim Fathers" emigrated to New England because of religious intolerance.
1621	Monopolies condemned (they were declared illegal in 1624). Bacon tried for bribery.
1625	Death of James. Charles I. comes to the throne.
1626	Duke of Buckingham attacked by Parliament.
1628	Petition of Right. Assassination of Buckingham.
1633	Laud became Archbishop of Canterbury.
1634	Ship-money imposed on maritime towns. Extended to inland towns in the following year.
1637	John Hampden refused to pay ship-money.
1638	The Scots signed the National Covenant, declaring against Episcopacy and the use of a liturgy.
1629–40	Absolute rule of Charles I. (no Parliament called).
1640	The Short Parliament met (the first called for eleven years). The Long Parliament met. Strafford and Laud accused of treason.
1641	Strafford executed. The Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission abolished. The Grand Remonstrance drawn up by the Commons.
1642	The attempt to arrest the Five Members. The Great Civil War begun.
1643	Hampden mortally wounded at Chalgrove Field. Battle of Newbury.
1644	The Scottish Army assisted the Parliamentarians. Defeat of the King at Marston Moor.

1645 A.D. .	Archbishop Laud executed. The Self-denying Ordinance passed by Parliament. The Army re-modelled. Defeat of the King at Naseby.
1646 . .	Charles gave himself up to the Scots.
1647 . .	Charles given up to the Parliament by the Scots.
1648 . .	The Second Civil War. "Pride's Purge."
1649 . .	Trial and execution of Charles I. The Commonwealth established. Cromwell crushed the rebellion in Ireland.
1650 . .	Battle of Dunbar. Scots defeated.
1651 . .	Scots defeated at the battle of Worcester.
1652 . .	First Dutch War.
1653 . .	Long Parliament dissolved by Cromwell. The "Barebones" Parliament met. Cromwell became Lord Protector. The Instrument of Government (an attempt to impose a "written" Constitution).
1655 . .	Major-Generals (twelve military governors). Capture of Jamaica, ever since a British possession.
1657 . .	The Humble Petition and Advice (the throne offered to Cromwell—he declined it).
1658 . .	Death of Cromwell. Richard Cromwell became Protector.
1659 . .	Richard Cromwell resigned the Protectorate.
1660 . .	Charles II. invited to return to England. The Declaration of Breda. Entered London 29th May.
1661 . .	The "Cavalier" Parliament met. Corporation Act passed.
1662 . .	Act of Uniformity passed.
1664–1665 .	The First Dutch War of the Restoration.
1664 . .	Conventicle Act passed.
1665 . .	Five Mile Act passed. Great Plague of London.
1666 . .	Great Fire of London.
1667 . .	Peace concluded with the Dutch (Treaty of Breda). Clarendon dismissed. The "Cabal" formed.
1668 . .	Triple Alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden against Louis XIV.
1670 . .	Secret Treaty of Dover between Charles II. and Louis XIV.
1672 . .	Second Dutch War of the Restoration. Charles published the Declaration of Indulgence (freedom of worship to Catholics and Dissenters).
1673 . .	Test Act passed (to lessen the influence of Catholics). Fall of the Cabal Ministry.
1674 . .	Peace with the Dutch.

1677 A.D. . Mary daughter of James, Duke of York, married William of Orange.

1678 . . The Popish Plot (Titus Oates declared the Roman Catholics to be plotting against the King).

1679 . . Habeas Corpus Act passed. The Exclusion Bill, passed by the Commons, rejected by the Lords (to exclude Roman Catholics from the English throne).

1683 . . The Rye House Plot (in favour of Monmouth). Russell and Sidney executed.

1685 . . Death of Charles II. James II. comes to the throne. Monmouth Rebellion. Battle of Sedgemoor. Monmouth executed. The Bloody Assizes.

1686 . . The Judges decided that the King might dispense with the Test Act (Dispensing Power).

1687 . . The King issued a Declaration of Indulgence.

1688 . . He issued a second Declaration, requiring it to be read in all churches. Petition of the Seven Bishops. The Bishops tried for libel, and acquitted. The Revolution. William of Orange landed at Torbay. The throne declared vacant; offered to William and Mary. Flight of James II.

1689 . . Crown accepted by William and Mary. Bill of Rights. Toleration Act passed (freedom of worship to Dissenters, not Roman Catholics). Battle of Killiecrankie (English defeated by Scots). Relief of Londonderry. Mutiny Act passed.

1690 . . Battle of the Boyne (William defeated James).

1692 . . Massacre of Glencoe. Battle of La Hogue (English defeated French).

1694 . . Triennial Act passed (no Parliament to last longer than three years). Death of Mary. Bank of England founded.

1695 . . The Liberty of the Press.

1696 . . Plot to assassinate William.

1697 . . Treaty of Ryswick (Peace with Louis XIV.).

1701 . . The Act of Settlement. Death of James II.

1702 . . Death of William III. Anne succeeded William. War of the Spanish Succession (England, Holland, and Germany against France and Spain).

1704 . . Capture of Gibraltar. Battle of Blenheim (great victory over the French).

1706 . . Battle of Ramillies (victory over the French).

1707 A.D. .	Union with Scotland (Parliaments united).
1708 . .	Defeat of the French at Oudenarde.
1709 . .	Defeat of the French at Malplaquet.
1713 . .	Treaty of Utrecht (Peace with France).
1714 . .	Death of Anne.

HANOVERIAN ENGLAND

1714 . .	Accession of George I.
1715 . .	Mar's Rising (in favour of the Pretender). Riot Act passed.
1716 . .	Septennial Act (Parliament might last seven years).
1720 . .	The South Sea Bubble.
1721 . .	Walpole, First Lord of the Treasury.
1727 . .	Death of George I. Accession of his son George II.
1736 . .	Porteous Riots in Edinburgh.
1739 . .	War with Spain.
1742 . .	Resignation of Walpole.
1743 . .	Battle of Dettingen (last occasion on which an English sovereign personally led his troops to battle—George II.).
1744 . .	Carteret resigned ; succeeded by Henry Pelham.
1745 . .	The Young Pretender's Rising. Defeat of the Royalists at Prestonpans. English defeated at Fontenoy by the French.
1746 . .	Battle of Culloden.
1748 . .	Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, between France, Spain, Holland, and England.
1751 . .	Clive's defence of Arcot (India).
1754 . .	Death of Henry Pelham. The Duke of Newcastle, Prime Minister.
1756 . .	Beginning of the Seven Years War (England and Prussia against France and Austria).
1757 . .	Pitt and Newcastle, chief Ministers. Battle of Plassey (India).
1759 . .	Wolfe captures Quebec.
1760 . .	Conquest of Canada. Battle of Wandewash (India). Death of George II. George III. comes to the throne (grandson of George II.).
1760–1840 .	The Industrial Revolution.
1761 . .	Pitt resigned. The Bridgewater Canal was made.
1762 . .	Bute, Prime Minister.
1763 . .	Peace of Paris (England, France, and Spain). End of Seven Years War. George Grenville, Prime Minister.

1765 A.D. .	Stamp Act passed (to tax American colonies). Rockingham's Ministry.
1766 . .	Repeal of the Stamp Act. Pitt, now Earl of Chatham, Prime Minister.
1767 . .	Grafton, Prime Minister. American Import Duties (taxes placed on glass, tea, paper, etc.). The spinning-jenny invented by Hargreaves.
1770 . .	Lord North, Prime Minister.
1771 . .	House of Commons debates first published.
1775 . .	Beginning of the American War of Independence. Battle of Bunker's Hill.
1776 . .	The Americans published their Declaration of Independence.
1778 . .	Death of Chatham. War with France.
1779 . .	Crompton invented a spinning machine called a mule.
1780 . .	The Gordon Riots.
1782 . .	United States become independent. Rockingham again Prime Minister. His death. Shelburne, Prime Minister. Gibraltar relieved.
1783 . .	End of the war. The Coalition Ministry (Lord North and Fox). Pitt (son of Earl Chatham), Prime Minister.
1784 . .	Pitt's India Bill (to lessen the power of the East India Company). Cartwright invented his power loom.
1788 . .	Insanity of the King. Beginning of the trial of Warren Hastings.
1789 . .	The Regency Bill. Beginning of the French Revolution. Wilberforce urged the Abolition of the Slave Trade.
1793 . .	Execution of Louis XVI. of France. War betweeen England and France.
1797 . .	Battle of St. Vincent (victory over the French). Mutinies of British sailors at Spithead and the Nore. Battle of Camperdown (victory over the French).
1798 . .	Bonaparte conquered Egypt. Battle of the Nile (French fleet destroyed by the British under Nelson). The Irish Rebellion. Vaccination announced.
1800 . .	Union of the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland. (The Act came into operation 1st January 1801.)
1802 . .	Peace of Amiens (Peace with France). The first Factory Act passed.
1803 . .	Renewal of the war with France.

1804 A.D.	Pitt again Prime Minister. Napoleon declared Emperor of the French.
1805	Battle of Trafalgar.
1806	Death of Pitt, and of Charles James Fox.
1808	Beginning of the Peninsula War.
1809	Battle of Corunna.
1811	Prince of Wales appointed Regent.
1815	Battle of Waterloo (British and Prussians defeated Napoleon).
1820	Death of George III. Accession of George IV.
1821	Peel, Home Secretary.
1822	Canning, Foreign Secretary.
1825	Stephenson drove the first train over the Stockton & Darlington Railway.
1827	Canning, Prime Minister. Battle of Navarino (Turkish fleet destroyed).
1828	Duke of Wellington, Prime Minister. Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts.
1829	Catholic Emancipation Act passed (giving Catholics equal rights with Protestants).
1830	Death of George IV. Accession of William IV. (brother of the late King). Lord Grey, Prime Minister. Liverpool & Manchester Railway opened.
1831	Reform Bill introduced by Lord John Russell. Riots in Bristol and other towns.
1832	Reform Bill passed (deprived many small boroughs of their right to be represented in Parliament, giving their right to large towns).
1833	Abolition of Slavery.
1834	The new Poor Law passed. Peel, Prime Minister.
1835	Peel resigned. Lord Melbourne, Prime Minister.
1837	Death of William IV. Victoria (his niece) comes to the throne. Hanover separated from England, as its crown could not be worn by a female sovereign.
1838	Chartist agitation commenced.
1840	Penny Postage (per half-ounce) established. Marriage of the Queen.
1846	Repeal of the Corn Laws. Potato Famine in Ireland.
1851	Great Industrial Exhibition in London.
1854	The Crimean War (England and France assisting Turkey against Russia). Defeat of the Russians at Alma, Balaclava, and Inkermann.
1855	Sebastopol taken.
1856	Treaty of Paris (Peace with Russia).

1857 A.D. .	The Indian Mutiny.
1858 . .	East India Company abolished. Jews admitted into Parliament.
1861–1865 .	Civil War in America.
1861 . .	Death of the Prince Consort.
1862 . .	Cotton Famine in Lancashire.
1867 . .	New Reform Bill passed for England (for Scotland and Ireland the following year).
1869 . .	Irish Church Bill passed (disestablished the Irish Church).
1870 . .	English Education Act passed.
1872 . .	Ballot Act passed.
1878 . .	Congress of Berlin (Conference of European Powers to settle the Russo-Turkish difficulty).
1884 . .	Death of General Gordon. Reform Act passed.
1885 . .	Redistribution Act passed (number of Members of the House of Commons increased from 658 to 670)
1887 . .	Jubilee of Queen Victoria (fifty years on the throne).
1890 . .	Uniform Colonial and Indian postage, at 2½d. per half-ounce, adopted.
1897 . .	Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria.
1898 . .	Imperial Penny Postage introduced (a penny per ounce).
1899 . .	The South African War commenced.
1901 . .	Death of Queen Victoria. Edward VII comes to the throne.
1902 . .	Peace in South Africa. Coronation of Edward VII.
1908 . .	Old Age Pensions Act passed (came into force 1st January 1909).
1909 . .	Report of the Royal Commission on English Poor Law published.
1910 . .	Death of Edward VII. (6th May). Accession of George V.
1911 . .	The Parliament Act passed (maximum duration of a single Parliament fixed at five years; deprives the House of Lords of all powers with regard to Money Bills; the Speaker of the House of Commons to decide what is or is not a Money Bill).
	The National Insurance Act passed.

SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND

EARLY SAXON PERIOD

Egbert (King of the West Saxons), finally "Rex Anglorum"	800–836
Ethelwulf (King of West Saxons)	836–858
Ethelbald	858–860
Ethelbert (King of Kent and Wessex)	860–866
Ethelred I.	866–871
Alfred the Great	871–901
Edward the Elder	901–925
Athelstan	925–940
Edmund I.	940–946
Edred	946–955
Edwy	955–959
Edgar the Peaceful	959–975
Edward the Martyr	975–978
Ethelred the Unready	978–1016
Edmund Ironside	1016

DANISH PERIOD

Canute	1016–1037
Harold Harefoot	1037–1040
Hardicanute	1040–1042

LATER SAXON PERIOD

Edward the Confessor	1042–1066
Harold (son of Godwin)	1066

NORMAN PERIOD

William I.	1066–1087
William II.	1087–1100
Henry I.	1100–1135
Stephen	1135–1154

PLANTAGENET PERIOD

Henry II.	1154–1189
Richard I.	1189–1199
John	1199–1216
Henry III.	1216–1272
Edward I.	1272–1307
Edward II.	1307–1327
Edward III.	1327–1377
Richard II.	1377–1399

HOUSE OF LANCASTER

Henry IV.	1399–1413
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